

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of October, 1761.

ARTICLE I.

A New System of Geography: In which is given a general Account of the Situation and Limits, the Manners, History, and Constitution, of the several Kingdoms and States in the known World; and a very particular Description of their Subdivisions and Dependencies; their Cities and Towns, Ports, Sea-ports, Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce. By A. F. Busching, D. D. Professor of Philosophy in the University of Gottingen, and Member of the learned Society at Duisburg. Carefully translated from the last Edition of the German Original. To the Author's Introductory Discourse are added three Essays relative to the Subject. Illustrated with thirty six Maps, accurately projected on a new Plan. In Six Volumes, 4to. Pr. 5l. 5s. Millar.

THE study of geography is so replete with entertainment, and so essentially necessary to a competent knowledge of history and politics, that we are astonished it should form no part of the education of youth at our great schools and universities; where the young gentlemen are supposed to acquire it by their own industry, or ever to remain in ignorance. The latter is generally their choice; and hence we frequently meet with profound philological critics, ingenious poets, and writers of taste and sentiment, who are incapable of pointing out the general divisions of the globe, and know nothing of the world beyond the spot in which they happen to exist. The difficulties which attend every incipient study deter some from the pursuit, until the mind has taken a different turn, and been wholly engrossed by some favourite object; while indolence and dissipation prevent others from acquiring any more knowledge than is absolutely necessary to perform their exercises with a tolerable degree of reputation. We have touched upon this subject because there is scarce a situation in life, either so mean

or so elevated, but requires some acquaintance with the terraqueous globe. The scholar is bewildered in every page, and the statesman perplexed with every project, should they happen to be unacquainted with this part of science. Without it, neither the soldier, mariner, nor merchant, can pursue their several professions with equal credit and advantage; and to the country gentleman and the tradesman, geography is so necessary, that a paragraph in a common news-paper is scarce intelligible, unless they possess some slight knowledge of the elements; though, from this kind of reading, they deduce most of their ideas respecting public affairs, and furnish themselves with materials for the sage debates of the evening club.

Considering then the extensive utility of geography, it must appear extraordinary, that so few treatises which claim any pretensions to merit have been written upon this subject. Authors have generally transcribed from each other, as the sensible M. Busching observes: they have seldom done more than merely altering the plan of preceding writers, and digesting into a regular connected form the detached fictions of travellers. In the long catalogue of modern geographical writers, we scarce meet with a single name eminent in the Republic of Letters, this province, though extremely difficult, having been always assigned by booksellers to drudges, whose merit they estimated by the modesty of their demands; the quantity of crude sheets delivered within a certain time; their address in suggesting a plausible title page; and the profits arising immediately to the employers. Sorry we are to observe, that men of genius sometimes become the prey of a set of rascally literary jobbers, whose avarice or necessities urge them to the continual publication of new books, to gratify that tasteless voracious appetite of the public for every thing which hath the recommendation of novelty. In this state of geography, our learned author found himself under the necessity of setting about his design, as if no system upon the same subject had ever appeared. Sensible that he could not rely upon the accounts given by those who preceded in the same tract, he had recourse to the first and best sources.

‘ I had recourse (says he) to the same originals, from which they derived their materials, and likewise to other sources which they could not have access to; or if they had, which they made no use of. Now as I can truly aver, that I have neither retailed, new-modelled, nor made the labours of my predecessors on this subject the ground-work of mine, but proceeded as if no such books had been extant, and I myself had been the first who wrote on the subject, I leave it to the determination of any competent judge, whether my geography can

admit of any improvement from the labours of former geographers? At least when I compared their works with the description which I had finished, I found nothing to add, which was either necessary, or useful to be known. And if they happen to mention some circumstances, about which my helps were silent, I have scrupled to admit such particulars into my account, and, I think, with reason reserved them for a future enquiry. This I look upon as the only means to bring geography to a greater degree of perfection than it has hitherto acquired; and I hope the learned will allow that by this method I have laid a good foundation for it.

M. Busching appears to have rigidly adhered, in compiling his work, to the directions laid down in his introduction, for writing systems of geography. 'Such accounts (says he) may be either more concise or more diffuse, according to the several plans laid down by different authors; but must every where exclude all uninteresting and trifling particulars, which might swell books of this kind to an uncommon and unwieldy size, lest more useful and important accounts be precluded by trivial subjects, mere empty words, indecent abuse, irony, sarcasm, and religious disputes. Hence it appears that the more significant, expressive, grave, and simple the author's manner of writing, or the diction is, consistently with perspicuity and elegance, the better and the more serviceable his geographical treatise may be deemed. But his endeavours to write in a concise and expressive manner must not derogate from the authenticity and accuracy of the accounts; for a system of geography ought to contain more than a chart or map, with a bare list of names. The exactness and authenticity of the accounts also require a proper arrangement or disposition, which must not be arbitrary, whimsical, or capricious, but adapted to the constitution of the several countries; and the situation of their several parts and divisions, so as to facilitate the knowledge of them to the reader. But the principal head of authenticity consists in the geographer's not framing designedly any fictitious accounts, nor credulously taking up any fables on trust; but as well in the choice of the sources from he draws his accounts, as in the use of them, proceeding with caution and deliberation, so that his system of geography may be as just and authentic as possible. His sources must not be other general systems of geography, but accurate descriptions, of single countries and provinces, and his own assiduous enquiries. Among the chorographical and topographical descriptions he ought to give the preference to such as have been executed on the spot in those several countries, by persons of abilities and impartiality, with a proper degree of care; and indeed he should not use any other accounts

but these, whether they be printed or communicated to him in manuscript. And among these the later accounts are more serviceable than the old; but the latter should at the same time be consulted and made use of. In examining these helps many tedious and intricate critical enquiries must be undertaken with unwearied patience, and unremitting care and assiduity; either for discovering truth amidst the darkness, obscurity, and doubt in which it may happen to be involved; or, where the helps prove contradictory, to come as near it as possible. The author's own diligent and cautious enquiries are likewise of great use; and the opportunities for making such enquiries are to be as advantageously employed, as they are eagerly to be fought after.'

If those directions our author has exactly characterised his own performance, and shewn that he had not entered upon the task before he had sufficiently examined the subject, and his own powers. Previous to his general design, M. Busching has laid down all the requisites for the study of geography. He begins with exhibiting a general idea of the utility of geography, and particularly as it serves to illustrate and explain the magnificent works of the Creator. Before this, however, we meet with a learned dissertation on the *measures of length* used by the antients, which we know not whether to attribute to the author, or to the English editor; an account of the reasons urged by Newton and his followers, in opposition to Cassini, in favour of the spheroidal figure of the earth; and a scheme of the best form of a geographical map, taken, if we mistake not, from a paper communicated in 1758, by the Rev. Mr. Murdoch, to the Royal Society, and published in the Transactions of that year. These are extremely pertinent additions with which the English translation is enriched.

To these dissertations succeeds Mr. Busching's introduction to geography, where he enters upon a critical enquiry into the merit of the maps, drawn by the geographers, of the antient, middle, and modern ages. Next follows a chapter on mathematical geography, in which M. Busching exhibits a few of the general rules for determining the spherical figure of the earth, enumerates the circumnavigators, recites the labours of the French and Spanish philosophers, to ascertain the exact figure of the earth, by measuring a degree of the meridian under the equator, and at the north pole; explains the relative situation of the earth in the solar system, and the different hypotheses established by Ptolemy, Tycho Brahe, and Copernicus; describes the greater imaginary lines, drawn by geographers, on the surface of the globe; lays down a table for calculating topographical distances in general maps or charts; accounts for the different

different seasons and climates from the annual revolution of the earth round the sun, with a variety of particulars essential to the study of geography, though familiar to every reader instructed in the elements of astronomy. The whole of this chapter is, indeed, adapted to the capacity of beginners, and nothing more than an epitome of what has been advanced more at large in the works of the English and French philosophers. Even the dissertation on the measures of length, we are pretty certain we have met with somewhere, and we believe it might have been in the Philosophical Transactions, though we cannot pretend exactly to charge our memory.

To the next chapter M. Busching gives the title of physical geography; and here he exhibits a general account of the properties of the surrounding atmosphere; and in the manner of Varenus, treats of mountains, valleys, volcanos, the different kingdoms into which philosophers have divided the external and internal produce of the earth; and lastly, of the surrounding and intercurrent seas in the several parts described in each volume.

Having now prepared the reader for the study of geographical descriptions, he begins with the northern kingdoms, and first with Denmark, taking notice of the best maps delineated of this kingdom; the etymology of the name; the seas dividing the several islands which compose this monarchy; the situation of its several parts; the general produce of the country; the distinct privileges of the three orders of the inhabitants, the nobles, burghers, and peasants; the Danish language, which he calls a dialect of the Swedish and Norwegian; the religion of the ancient Danes; the establishment of Christianity, and the progress of the reformed religion; the dioceses; the present state of science, and the arts; the commerce of Denmark; the different bodies of incorporated merchants, trading upon joint stocks to the East and West-Indies, the coast of Africa, or to other parts of the world, under the appellation of a general trading company; the bank erected for the convenience of trade at Copenhagen; the different coins now current in the kingdom; the means established for conducting a foreign and domestic intercourse by post-offices and letter-carriers; the conquests made by the Danes; the titles which the monarch still assumes; the honorary orders established as rewards of merit; the several chanceries and colleges erected for the dispatch of public business; the courts of judicature; the revenue, fleets, armies, with every other particular which relates to the policy, religion, laws, learning, produce, and opulence of the kingdom. After this he enters upon a minute topographical description of the several islands and parts which com-

pose the monarchy, and is beyond comparison more satisfactory and minute in this particular, than any preceding writer that has fallen into our hands. His own words will convey the best idea of the manner in which he has treated his subject.

‘In the first place, I treat of their polity or civil constitution in an authentic and concise manner, with impartiality and circumspection. I have, with regard to the constitution or form of government of several countries, had the good fortune hitherto to procure important and authentic accounts, and such as rarely fall into the hands of the learned. Those who are competent judges in these matters will find them scattered with no sparing hand in this first volume. The plan I have laid down, and the necessary caution and prudence to be observed on these occasions, forbid me to communicate any more of those anecdotes to the public. I have candidly pointed out all the advantages which every country enjoys, or at least, such as have come to my knowledge; and there is not a single country on the globe which cannot boast of some peculiar advantages. It would be highly absurd and blameable in a geographer, to despise any country because it has not some particular advantage or convenience with which, perhaps, another region is blessed. Such a writer pours contempt on the works of God, and the several domains of his extensive kingdom; and finds fault with Divine Providence, which deals out the good things and commodities of the earth with the most consummate wisdom and benevolence, and imparts to every country what is indispensably necessary for its inhabitants. I wholly avoid giving the characters of nations, it being not only a very difficult task in itself, but such general characters are also, at best, uncertain, and for the most part ill-grounded and partial. I refer to what I have written on this head in section 70, of the introduction. As the extending and increasing of commerce is now one of the principal objects which most nations have in view, I have given an exact account of the present state of the trade in those countries where it flourishes most. The reader will find this article, with regard to the northern countries, accurately described in this volume.

‘Next to the general account of the polity of states and kingdoms follows the particular geographical description of every country, in which I lay down the usual political divisions into greater and smaller districts as the basis of it, including, at the same time, the ecclesiastical polity of every country. I do not designedly omit one natural or artificial curiosity that deserves notice in any place which I have described: but touch on it at least, if I cannot give a circumstantial account of it. The principal cities and towns in every country I describe according to

to the ichnographical plans we have of them, and that pretty largely, as they contain several things worthy of notice. I have not used the expressions, *great, small, handsome, eminent, inconsiderable, mean, &c.* indifferently or partially; but employed them according to the knowledge I had acquired of every particular place. I could wish we had, in this respect, a certain rule to go by; but such a standard is difficult to be found. A town is large, handsome, and well-built; or little, mean, and inconsiderable, only as considered with respect to other towns in the same country; but when compared with those of other countries, may deserve different epithets. For what is called a large and beautiful place, and really is so in one kingdom, may be justly called little and inconsiderable, or a place of no great note, in another. However, there are towns, &c. in every country, which may in general be called large and elegant. I have set down the probable number of inhabitants in several countries and great cities, or inserted an account of their births and burials from the annual bills of mortality; but this could not be done for all. In describing others, I have also shewn how the names of places are properly pronounced, a necessary information in a system of geography; but this I cannot pretend to have done in a satisfactory manner. Upon the whole, I must observe that it is not possible to describe every country with equal accuracy and authenticity, the same helps, and vouchers of equal credit, cannot be procured for them all. My descriptions, however, will be found tolerably uniform and of a piece in proportion to the extent and importance of the countries described; and what is still wanting in my account of several places may possibly be supplied hereafter.

We must observe, that in the catalogue which M. Busching gives of the books he has consulted in describing the northern states, he has omitted a variety of curious authentic authorities, and among these, Rudbeck's *Atlanica*, Olaus Magnus, Witfeld, Pontani *Chorographia Scandinavica*, annexed to his history, Florus Danicus, Æneas Sylvius, Guaguini, Erasmus Stella, Martin Cromer, Mathew of Michovia, Hartmannus Schedelius, and a variety of other political and chorographical writers, collected by Pistorius, all of which would have proved extremely useful, particularly with respect to the etymologies of names, and the antient state of the northern kingdoms. For want of consulting those authorities, we may venture to pronounce that M. Busching is frequently defective in the etymology. We shall specify a few instances. He rejects the etymology which deduces Denmark from *Dan*, the first monarch, and *Mare*, which signifies *field*, or *land*, viz. the *land of Dan*, because it is very uncertain whether ever such a prince existed. Now we imagine that

the only doubt among antiquaries respects the period when that prince flourished: some writers, among whom is Grammaticus, placing it so early, that all the subsequent reigns must extend beyond the usual life of a man, making one with another three-score years. The etymology which he seems to prefer, is infinitely more forced and conjectural, and likewise supported by weaker documents. Not a single antient author of credit affirms, that the river Eider was antiently called Dan, Danæ, or Dena; or that Jutland ever bore any of those appellations.

What he says of the relative strength of antient and modern Denmark shews, that he had not consulted some of the best antient authorities; we mean Witfeld, whom he have just mentioned. 'Some are of opinion (says M. Busching, that the number of inhabitants in this kingdom was formerly more considerable than it is at present.' This is all we find upon a subject equally curious and important to history. But our author might, without doubt, have been assured, that not only the Danish islands and Jutland are less populous than formerly, but the whole peninsula of Scandinavia, if we can have any faith in historical testimony, or can draw any consequences from those repeated migrations, which over-run Europe like a torrent. Witfeld estimates the strength of Denmark as late as the reign of Valdemar II. at more than double what the best accounts make it at present; and yet the territories of that prince were nearly the same with those of his present majesty. These indeed are particulars, upon which only the antiquary and historian will require accuracy; they are properly not within the province of our author, though as he touches upon them, it were better if he had been more explicit.

With respect to the topography of the northern kingdoms, and the account of the manufactures, native commodities, schools, universities, the state of learning, &c. we believe no other writer is so copious, accurate, and satisfactory, as M. Busching. His stile is simple, but chaste; his manner concise, but perfectly intelligible; and, indeed, brevity was necessary, where such a multitude of subjects are treated. We shall give a specimen of his manner, by quoting the most entertaining particulars of what he relates of Greenland, which we doubt not will prove agreeable to our readers. This, in a work of so vast extent, that it would be impossible to enumerate particulars, is the only satisfactory method we have of conveying a just idea of the talents of the author.

'The Greenland sea, and other parts of the northern ocean which lie under the north-pole, are full of the large or cetaceous species of fish, where incredible numbers of them swim in vast shoals.

fishes. Here the great Creator, out of his exuberant goodness and bounty, has dealt out their food with a liberal hand; and of all climates this is the best adapted to their hot constitutions, and enormous bodies which are, as it were, inclosed in fat. (This cetaceous species differ extremely from other kinds of fish, having nothing in common with them but the outward form; for in every particular they resemble land animals as to their internal parts. They breathe with lungs, and consequently cannot remain long under water. They also copulate like quadrupeds, bring forth their young alive, and suckle them with their milk. As the fins of other fish consist of bones or cartilages fastened together by thin membranes running between them, so the whale has articular bones like the fingers of a human hand with their proper ligaments, which are covered with a thick skin like that of the other part of its body, and are distinguished by the name of fins. By means of this mechanism the whales can move and turn about their huge unwieldy bodies with greater ease than they could with fins of the common make, and secure themselves from falling precipitately upon the rocks when they dive to the bottom of the sea; for which end they lay their thick tail horizontally on the surface of the water, which is of great service to them in this motion. There are several kinds of whales. In the first place, they may be divided into such as have apertures in the head, and such as have nostrils, for respiration. Some of the former have two holes or apertures, as the whale properly so called, the fin-fish, &c. Others have only one, as the *cachellotte*. But those that respire through the nostrils are seldom to be met with. The whale species may also very naturally, and from observation, be divided into those which have plain, and those with gibbous or prominent backs. The whale, properly so called, and the *nordecaper* are of the former kind. Among those with protuberant backs are,

1. Such as have a fin, as the fin-fish, and the *Jupiter*.

2. Such as have one or more more *gibbi* or protuberances on the back; as the sword-fish, the American plug-fish, &c.

Some whales have *spicula* in their jaws, as those of Greenland, the *nordecaper*, the fin-fish, &c. Others have teeth; and of these some have only one tooth, as the *unicorn marinum* or unicorn-fish, and others have several teeth.

Of the spiculated kind with a flat back, the chief is the real Greenland whale, which is thick and unwieldy; and its head takes up one third part of its bulk. This kind are from sixty to seventy feet in length; the fins on their sides from five to eight feet; and the tail, which is in an horizontal position, or bent

bent a little upwards on both sides, is from three to four fathoms broad. When the whale is in danger, he turns himself upon his side and brandishes his tail, which it is very dangerous to approach. The skin on the back of the whale is black and smooth, but variegated or marbled in some places; and that on its belly is white. The tail serves him for an oar with which he rows himself forward with surprising swiftness. Next to the skin, which is not thicker than strong writing-paper or thin parchment, is the sward or rind, which is near an inch thick; and between this and the flesh lies the fat to the thickness of nine, and sometimes twelve, inches. Under the fat is the flesh, which is dry and very red. In its upper jaw on both sides are the *spicula*, or the whale-bone, as it is called, which serve him for teeth; and the largest of these, which are placed in the middle, are seven or eight feet in length, and sometimes more. On each side are generally two hundred and fifty of these *spicula*; so that they amount to five hundred in all. The tongue is very fat, and so large that it fills several casks. The eyes of the whale, which are not larger than those of an ox, are in the hind part of the head, where it is broadest; and are defended by eye-lids and eye brows. This fish is very quick of hearing, though it has no external ears; only there is a black spot under the upper skin behind the eye, and under that spot a narrow duct, which seems to convey the sound to the *tympanum* or drum. The *penis* of the male is six feet in length, and seven or eight inches in diameter in the thickest part, but not above one inch near the body, into which it is generally drawn up. The *pudenda* of the female resemble those of quadrupeds, but are generally contracted together; and near the aperture on each side hangs a dug or teat. They generally bring forth but one at a birth; and sometimes, though but seldom, they have two young ones. Their milk is like that of a cow. Their usual food is a small, black, round insect, about the bigness of a pea, or horse-bean; of these insects the whale sucks prodigious swarms with his vast mouth, and afterwards grinds them with his *spicula*.

* The *nordeaper*, a kind of whale so called from the vast numbers of them seen about the *nordeap* or north-cape in Norway, is much slenderer and smaller than the whale properly so called.

* The *cachellote* is famous on account of the *sperma ceti* and ambergris it yields. The head makes near half the bulk of the fish, and, in shape, is not unlike the butt-end of a musket. As to the inward texture of the head, it has several cavities wherein is lodged the brain-oil, of which *sperma ceti* is made. The ambergris is found in spherical balls from three to twelve inches in diameter, in an oval purse or bladder, which is three or four

four feet in length and two or three in breadth, and lies directly over the teſticles of the fiſh.

‘ The *ſee-hunde*, *canus marinus*, or dog-fiſh is the moſt ſerviceable of all animals to the Greenlanders. For its fleſh ſerves them for food, and its ſkin for cloathing, to make boots with, &c. Of its entrails and membranes they alſo make windows and ſails; its ligaments ſerve for thread and cords; and of the bones are made all kinds of domeſtic utenſils and implements of hunting.’

‘ The Greenlanders of both ſexes are generally ſhort, or under the common ſize, but well-proportioned, fat, and plump. Their faces are ſomething flat; their hair black and lank; and their complexion, from their ſordid manner of living, is of a browniſh red. It is very ſeldom that they are afflicted with epidemic diſeaſes; being ſtrangers to the ſmall-pox, &c. But the ſcurvy is the reigning diſtemper in this country; and their common remedy on this occaſion, beſides ſome other ſimples, is ſcurvy-graſs. They have neither ſurgeon nor phyſician among them; but are apt to rely on certain impoſtors called *angekoken*, who pretend to foretel future events, and to be ſkilled in magic and phyſic. Extraordinary inſtances of longevity are not wanting among the Greenlanders; and poſſibly they would be more frequent, did not their manner of life daily expoſe them to numberleſs dangers and fatigues.

‘ Their language has ſomething very ſingular in it, and is difficult to be learned; but at the ſame time it is ſaid to have many elegant phraſes and expreſſions, and not to be ſo harſh and uncouth as one would imagine. Concerning this particular the reader may conſult Woldiken's *Melitema de lingua Grœnlandicæ origine, ejuſque à cæteris linguis differentia*, in the ſecond volume of the *Scripta Societatis Hafnienſis*, or, ‘ Transactions of the Royal Society, or Academy of Sciences, at Copenhagen.’ M. Paul Egede has publiſhed a dictionary of the Greenland language, entitled *Dictionarium Grœnlandico-Danico-Latinum*; and for the inſtruction of the Greenlanders, the gospels of the four Evangelists, and ſeveral ſmall tracts have been tranſlated into their language, and printed at Copenhagen. The Greenland dialect is moſtly the ſame throughout the whole country, excepting ſome little difference in the pronounciation. The women have alſo a particular manner of pronouncing their words, which generally terminate in *u*. The Greenlanders in their own language call themſelves *Innuuk*.

‘ Their cloathing is made of the ſkins of rein-deer, the dog-fiſh, and of certain birds, ſewed together with the ſmall guts of the

the *canis maridus*. There is very little difference in the dress of the two sexes; and both of them live in a very sordid filthy manner.

They have two sorts of habitations, one of which serves for the winter, and the other for the summer season. The winter dwellings are the largest; and it is generally the women's task to build them up against winter, or when they intend to make a long stay in any particular place. These are of a square form, and built with pebbles, or small fragments of the rocks, and their interstices are filled up with moss, or peat. These huts are very seldom more than two ells above the surface of the ground; the rest of them being, for greater stability and defence from the wind and cold, sunk into the earth. The roof is covered with turf; and the entrance into them is dug narrow, and winding under ground. One of these dwellings seldom exceeds twenty feet square; and yet is often occupied by seven or eight families. These habitations are so warm that both men and women are generally stript to the waist whilst they remain in them; but the stench occasioned by the close confinement of so many persons together is intolerable.

The Greenlanders betake themselves to these winter mansions in the month of October, and continue in them till the beginning of May. Their summer habitations are light tents made of the smooth skins of the dog fish.

In their marriages, the chief qualifications required in the bride are skill in domestic affairs, and especially in cutting out and sewing their garments: and nothing recommends a suitor more than boldness, activity, and success in fishing and hunting. At the marriage festivities the bride is sure always to put on a shew of gravity, and an air of sullen melancholy. Relations never intermarry amongst them; and they carry this humour so far as to abstain from it even to the third or fourth degree of consanguinity. In general every Greenlander has but one wife. They have a respectful idea of marriage; yet is it not held so sacred among them, but that sometimes a man puts away his wife very abruptly. They are fond of their children even to a culpable excess; so that instead of moderate correction, or checking them for their faults, they let them do whatever they please. They usually eat when they are hungry; but their chief meal is at night. Their common food is the flesh of reindeer and hares; all kinds of land and water-fowl, the dog-fish, and other sorts of fresh-water and sea-fish, and even some parts of the whale, and particularly the *loader*, a small kind of herring. Their manner of dressing and eating their victuals is extremely

extremely disgusting. They prefer the blood of the dog-fish to any other beverage; but their usual drink is water: however, they can drink a great deal of brandy without being intoxicated.

The occupation of the men is chiefly fishing and hunting, for which they have very curious tackle. The boats, in which the men only row out to sea, are about three fathoms long, and but three quarters of an ell broad about the middle: they also end in a very sharp point at both extremities. They are made of very thin, narrow boards fastened together with whale-bone and covered with seal-skins. Only one man goes out in one of these boats, who is half covered, and so securely faced in, that the water cannot penetrate into the boat; and thus equipped he will row ten or twelve Norway miles in a day, though he has but one oar, which is six or seven feet long and flat at both ends. These boats are easily overset, which they look upon as no great detriment if the owner comes off with his life; and many of them are extremely dextrous in recovering the boat again when such an accident happens. The larger sort of boats are commonly called *weiberbåte*, i. e. 'the women's boats,' as none but females row in them. They have also open *prahmen*, or barges, which are pointed at both ends but not deep: they are covered with dog-fish skins and high at the extremities. These they make use of to convey their effects in their emigrations, or when they embark for the whale-fishery, and likewise in coasting from one port to another.

The Greenlanders are strangers to trades, arts, and sciences. They have no traffick among one another, and their commerce with foreigners is very inconsiderable. Their chief commodities are blubber and whalebone; the sea-unicorn's horn; the skins of deer, foxes, and the dog-fish; which they exchange for necessaries in cloathing and all kinds of ordinary domestic utensils. They neither use nor have any knowledge of money: but they fix a certain value on iron.

When they meet together they express their mirth by drumming, singing, and dancing. They are accustomed from their very childhood to an unbounded liberty; for they live according to their own inclinations, without any controul, or the check of parents or magistrates; all of them being on a level. They have little regard to outward ceremony, politeness, or decency. They are free, open, and cheerful in conversation; and nothing pleases them better than merry jests and raillery, by which that melancholy to which they are naturally inclined is diverted. They live very sociably, and repose great confidence in each other. Amorous intrigues are seldom or never heard of among them;

them; and as they abstain from theft, rapine, and violence among themselves, they are never known, upon any pretence, to make war on their neighbours. They think themselves greatly superior to the Danes, and make no scruple to pilfer any thing from them when it can be done with safety. But the great foible with which the Greenlanders, and especially the women, are taxed with, is an invincible obstinacy and inflexibility. They are so unhappily ignorant in matters of religion, that they are said to have no idea of a God; insomuch that their language has not an expression to denote a Supreme Being. They imagine that as soon as a person dies, his soul goes to heaven, and there enjoys the diversion of hunting from age to age, while the body remains behind and moulders away in earth.

The account our author gives of other countries is not less entertaining; but it would exceed our limits to quote enough to gratify the curiosity of our readers. Sufficient it is that M. Busching has exceeded all the geographers we have seen in accuracy, minuteness, and every particular relative to the northern countries. His maps, taken from authentic surveys, will form an exceeding valuable Atlas; and the English editor has, in many places, improved, amended, and enlarged the original by judicious notes. Time will not admit of our perusing the whole work; but as far as we are capable of judging from the first volume, M. Busching hath greatly enriched the Republick of Letters by this valuable present.

ART. II. *The History of the Roman Emperors, from Augustus to Constantine. By Mr. Crevier, Professor of Rhetoric in the College of Beauvais. Translated from the French. Val. X. To which is added, a Plan of antient Rome, on a large Copper-Plate. Also, a Description of the same: containing an Account of the principal Buildings, Places, &c. with References to the Passages in which they are mentioned in M. Crevier's History of the Roman Emperors. 8vo. Pr. 5s. Knapton.*

THIS volume, which concludes M. Crevier's Roman history, contains an account of the reigns of those princes who seized the purple at the death of Constantius; the government and life of Constantine the Great; a general index to the work; and a description of antient Rome. No period in the Roman annals is more interesting than this, when Christianity was elevated to the throne; yet no other, since the first ages of Rome, is more obscurely related. Writers were swayed intirely by prejudice, and represented men and things just as religious opinions

nions dictated. By consulting pagan writers, one would imagine that Constantine was a monster of ambition, sensuality, pride, and prodigality; by perusing only Christian writers we must regard him as a prodigy of virtue, valour, piety, and every quality capable of engaging esteem and attracting admiration. We took notice of this diversity in our account of the spirited performance of M. Le Beau, entitled *Histoire du bas Empire*.*

M. Crevier has implicitly followed the relation of the Christian writers, even so far as to adopt their superstition, and copy their absurdities. The account of Constantine's conversion favours so strongly of the marvellous and the ignorance of that age, that we are of opinion it ought only to be inserted under great limitations, and with such remarks, as the farther improvement of reason, and the historian's own good sense and impartiality ought to suggest. Though it might be unadvisable to reject wholly a fact attested by so many writers; yet we think it ought to be asserted doubtfully, and rested intirely upon the authority of the first relaters. It was upon the eve of a rupture with Maxentius, that Constantine became a profelyte to Christianity. 'He was thoroughly sensible, (says our historian) of the advantage his enemy had over him in point of strength: and God made use of his uneasiness in this respect, to wean him from the worship of impotent idols, and bring him to the knowledge of his truth. To this great end, things had been long prepared. Constantine, born of a father who esteemed and loved the Christians, had imbibed the same sentiments in his early years. He saw with horror the cruelties which Dioclesian and other princes exercised against them; and took particular notice of the divine vengeance so visible in the punishment of Maximian and Galerius. In consequence of these impressions, he was always favourable to those that followed the law of Christ; and the very first use he made of the imperial power, was, as we said before, to abolish every remnant of persecution. But still he had not got rid of the false ideas in which he had been educated, concerning a multiplicity of gods. He allowed every one to worship his own; whilst he himself paid homage to those he had been taught to revere; not knowing that the true God will be honoured alone, because he alone deserves our worship. The greatness of the danger to which he was going to be exposed in fighting against Maxentius filled him with serious reflections. He knew that his enemy had recourse to magic charms and sacrifices, to procure the assistance of the powers of hell. He, on the contrary, invoked that God, whom

* Critical Review, Vol. VIII. p. 315.

he as yet knew but in a confused and imperfect manner, and prayed him to manifest himself unto him, and to be his protector. God heard his prayer, which proceeded from a sincere heart; and, with a goodness of which not only Constantine was the object, but of which the effect was to extend to the whole Christian church, granted him a signal prodigy, which says Eusebius, it would be difficult to believe, if it was not very strongly attested. But, continues that writer, I have the account from the emperor himself, who has averred the truth of it to me upon oath.

At Constantine, as he was marching with his army, towards evening, when the day began to decline, saw, in the sky, just over the sun, the figure of a luminous cross, with this inscription, "By This thou shalt conquer." His army saw, as well as himself, this miraculous phenomenon, which struck all the beholders with great astonishment. Constantine, though he lived in the midst of Christians, and was extremely kind to them, had so little notion of Christianity, that he did not know the meaning of this cross. A dream informed him of it. In the night Jesus Christ appeared to him with his cross, and commanded him to have a representation made of that which he then saw, and to use it in all his battles as a sure defence against his enemies. Constantine obeyed. The moment he awaked he sent for workmen, to whom he described the form of the cross he had seen, then made them draw a sketch of it, and afterwards ordered them to execute it magnificently. The following is the description which Eusebius gives us of it.

A long pike, covered with gold, was traversed at a certain height by a piece of wood which made it a cross. To the upper part, which rose above the arms, was fixed a crown of gold and precious stones, in the middle of which appeared the monogram of Christ, formed by the two letters X and P, crossing each other. From the two arms of the cross hung a purple standard, covered with embroidery of gold and jewels, so resplendent, that it dazzled the eyes of those that saw it. Under the crown and monogram were placed the busts of Constantine and his children, of gold. This trophy of the cross became Constantine's imperial standard. The Roman emperors had always had their peculiar standard, which was called Labarum; and which, loaded with representations of false gods, was looked upon by their armies as an object of religious veneration. Constantine, by substituting upon his Labarum the name of Christ instead of the image of the pagan gods, disaccustomed his soldiers from an impious worship, and brought them by degrees to pay their adorations to that Being to which they are due.

due. This precious ensign was committed to the care of fifty of the emperor's guards, chosen from among the stoutest, bravest, and most pious of that body, who were charged to surround and defend it, and to take it by turns upon their shoulders, when any of them should be tired. Constantine had several others made after the same model, not so rich, to be the military ensigns of all the troops that composed his army. He ordered too that even the arms of his soldiers should be marked with a cross, and that they should likewise bear it upon their shields and helmets.

‘ The exact place where this miraculous cross appeared to Constantine is not known with certainty. But the sequel of facts in Eusebius determines us, as well as M. de Tillemont, to think it was in Gaul that this celestial prodigy was wrought. The time was certainly the year of Christ 311, when Constantine was making preparations for the war against Maxentius.

‘ The truth of the fact, attested by Constantine himself, cannot be doubted. It made a great noise; and an orator of that very time, a Pagan by religion, mentions it plainly, though he disguises and dresses it up after the manner of the ancient fabulous stories. Nazarius says, that a celestial army was seen heading that of the prince, and that the soldiers of both these armies mutually exhorted and encouraged one another. Even this account, thus altered from the real fact, contains a manifest acknowledgment of a miraculous assistance sent from heaven.’

With the same credulity, and even rashness, he adopts the relations of the earlier Christian historians, of the judgments inflicted by the Almighty on the persecutors of Christianity. To God's vengeance he attributes the violent end of Maximian, who hanged himself; and the shocking death of Galerius, Dioclesian, and a variety of other princes, who had violently opposed the propagation of the gospel.

‘ At length (says he) God took vengeance on Galerius, the implacable enemy to his worship, and struck him with an incurable disease, the seat of which gives room to think, as I observed before, that it was occasioned by debauchery. Eusebius, and more particularly Lactantius, have left us a description of this disease, which none can read without being filled with horror. I shall only say, that his torments lasted a great while; that all the aid of physic, and all the art of surgery, afforded him no sort of ease; that the rottenness having penetrated to his bowels, a frightful quantity of worms and maggots issued from thence; and that his whole form was inexpressibly shocking.

From the waist upwards, a deep consumption had reduced him to a skeleton ; while the lower part of his body was so swelled, that no shape of feet or legs could be distinguished, but they looked like skins blown up with wind.

‘ This wretched prince, even whilst he suffered the most excruciating pains, followed at first the natural barbarity of his temper. To reward his physicians and surgeons for the services they did him, he put several of them to death : and he still continued the persecution against the Christians with the same fury as before. The long duration of his illness, which lasted a whole year, tamed him, however, at last, and filled him with remorse for the cruelties he had exercised against so many innocent persons. Rufinus says, that one of his physicians, who doubtless was a Christian, helped him to make this reflection, by boldly remonstrating to him, that his distemper was manifestly a visitation from heaven, and could not be got the better of by any human means. That he had long made war against the servants of God, and that God had stretched out his hand against him. Galerius could not deny the justice of this reflection, which the violence of his anguish made him feel most sensibly. Like Antiochus, he was touched with a sort of repentance ; but less pungent and less sincere than the contrition of that old offender. His pride would not suffer him fully to own his error ; but in the edict which he published to stop the persecution, he still endeavoured to gloss over his past conduct.’

Can any thing be more presumptuous than thus to decide upon the intentions of Divine Providence ? Can any thing be more dissonant to the laws of history, than pronouncing peremptorily concerning causes which must ever elude human sagacity ? Yet is M. Crevier's narrative every where through the volume, interrupted with unseasonable, hardy, and superstitious reflections of this nature. Upon the whole, we should have been better pleased with the execution of this volume, had we not lately perused the spirited and masterly history of the same period, by M. Le Beau.

With respect to the translator, we should apprehend that he has sometimes either mistaken the sense of his author, or literally translated phrases not very agreeable to the genius of the English language ; but we cannot pronounce with certainty, as we have not the original before us. In the second page we meet with the following expression : “ The conveniency of giving one uninterrupted historical *tissue*.” His views and *arrangements* were very different. He had *cruelly* offended Constantine.

Every

Every other page in the work furnishes instances of expressions equally unwarrantable or doubtful, at the best. After all, however, it must be confessed, that the translation of a work which hath acquired eminence abroad, and is well esteemed in this country, has brought a considerable accession to British literature.

The description of antient Rome would not only afford little entertainment, but be almost unintelligible without the annexed plan, which presents a complete and accurate view of that capital of the world, as far as can be collected from the researches of antiquaries, and the descriptions of classic writers.

ART. III. *The Christian Common Prayer Book, or, Universal Liturgy : Founded on the true Gospel Principles of Charity, Benevolence, and Liberty ; and adapted to the general public Use of every Society of Christians.* 8vo. Pr. 2s. 6d. Millar.

THE consequences of innovation in that mode of religion authorised by the legislature, have been dreaded by the ablest politicians, and the most pious divines in this kingdom. The constitutions of church and state have been thought to be so intimately consolidated, as to render alterations impracticable in the one without affecting the other. Swift observes, that it is difficult to strip off the trimmings, without tearing the garment ; and the apprehension, lest religion should be divested of some of its most awful rites, had determined divers candid and pious divines violently to oppose any alteration in ceremonies which they acknowledge to be unessential. Reformations generally exceed what was at first proposed ; and the veneration for the established form of worship is diminished in the minds of the vulgar, by every confession that it is not all perfect. We must acknowledge, however, that we think these reasons rather specious than solid ; had they always prevailed, we should have now been immersed in the gross idolatry of the antient Britons, or the superstition of our popish ancestors. A wise administration may correct abuses without tampering with the constitution ; and to unite in one mode of worship, and glorify God with one mind and one voice, is a blessing to be desired by every lover of his country, were it only that this unanimity must necessarily invigorate and impart strength and spirit to the nerves of government.

Dissensions in religion lead to political differences ; upon these were founded those bitter animosities which subverted the government in the reign of Charles I. A few were actuated by

views of policy and ambition ; the majority was led by misguided conscience, which gave birth to that torrent of enthusiasm and fanaticism, that overwhelmed common sense in the general devastation. In Holland we see, that a dispute between two obscure divines about the unintelligible doctrine of free grace, involved the whole nation in factions, that had nearly produced the dissolution of government, and established either anarchy or despotism. It cannot fail of proving a discouragement to subjects, otherwise well affected and loyal, that they find themselves excluded from high offices, preferments, and a share in the conduct of public affairs, merely because a conscience, perhaps too scrupulous and tender, has prevented their joining with the established worship, on account of certain forms, which they regard as the remnants of popery.

A sense of the inconveniences arising from this dissonance in worship is said to have suggested to a late right reverend prelate, equally pious and learned, a scheme of coalition, whereby all parties should be again received into the bosom of the church, by means only of some trifling mutual concessions, though the peculiar circumstances of the times deterred him from making it public. It is even supposed, that a work ushered into light some years since with this professed tendency, was supported by the countenance of the clergy most eminent for virtue and good sense, both of the church of England and among the dissenters ; and certain it is, that every proposal, the object of which is to heal those sores occasioned by schism, to remove the dangerous effects of blind zeal, to unite parties, and join in one common form of worship, the present incongruous mass of professing Christians in Great Britain, merits the regard of the public, and the countenance of the legislature. This, as far as we are able to discover, appears to be the real intention of our author, whose moderation must strongly recommend him to all who are not misled by zeal without knowledge, and actuated more by prejudice than conscience. He very sensibly observes, that there are two numerous bodies of Christians, both established by law in this island, some of whom may be alarmed at any attempt made by a private person to reform public worship.

‘ Many, (says he) who by long use of the liturgy by law established in England and Ireland, have contracted a sort of veneration for every part of its *forms*, and think it vain, if not impossible, to amend the same : another set, on the contrary, who by being so entirely unaccustomed to any *forms* at all in public worship, as those of the established church of Scotland, and the dissenters in England, are apt to think them altogether needless and inexpedient, yea, some perhaps think the use of them

them sinful, at least contrary to God's own direction and promise of assistance in this duty. But each of these parties will, by all candid and unprejudiced judges, be found to be mistaken; as extremes on both sides are equally culpable, arising from unreasonable prejudices, which ought never to be indulged in the momentous affairs of religion.'

'Both ways have their peculiar advantages as well as disadvantages: but it is too great presumption in any side to say, that their present manner of conducting *public worship* is completely perfect, or entirely scriptural, or that it will not admit of some reformation or improvement: therefore every candid and Christian attempt for this purpose justly merits some favourable regard. And perhaps the *plan* here offered unites the advantages of *each*, without the material inconveniences of *either*.'

Our author remarks, that the objection of the dissenters is not to the unlawfulness of praying by a form, and the use of a liturgy, but to several passages in the prescribed liturgy, to which they cannot give their assent. In composing the following form, the greatest care has therefore been taken to introduce nothing that can hurt the most tender conscience, to assert no opinion but what is perfectly intelligible, and adopted by all parties.

The following is the author's plan, which we submit in his own words to our readers, without presuming to give our own judgment, or offer remarks upon a subject which requires the utmost caution and delicacy.

'The plan of the following work is taken from the *established liturgy*, by collecting all the several parts of prayers, that are separated and dispersed through the whole, which, though good in the main, are often irregular, and require to be gathered into one regular series or *form of prayer*, as is here endeavoured to be done, and some material wants supplied, as well as unscriptural terms omitted. In which also the different parts of *confession of sin, adoration, thanksgiving, and implorations for mercy and pardon*, with the general and particular *intercessions*, are compiled orderly, and inserted in their proper places; and all to be used as *one entire office*, but in distinct parts, and not in three intermixed and confused together, that were originally made to be used at different times, and upon different occasions. This want of a regular order and method in the *liturgy*, shews a strange inattention in first composing it, and an implicit indolence in the continued using of it, without due examination and thoughtful consideration; which ought to induce our worthy governors to attempt its amendment. For though the *common prayer* be good in the general, yet it must be confessed, that it wants regulation, and some considerable alterations and

amendments. Are all the faults redressed that were found in the old liturgy, and complained of in what is said concerning the service of the church, after the *preface to the common prayer*? Is there no breaking one piece from another now, as well as before the reformation? No needless repetitions or tautologies? Or are the scriptures, *e. g.* now read in a continued regular course, as is there said they ought to be? It is indeed much to be lamented, how unsuccessfully many of the most pious and judicious, dignified, and other eminent divines have, from time to time, recommended and desired a reformation of the liturgy; and the generality of the laity, who think seriously of it, wish to have it set about, and all offences in it removed. It is more than ten years since the *Free and Candid Disquisitions* were published, which examined more minutely into its errors and defects than will be here attempted, yet they have not hitherto produced their intended good effect, though their objections were proposed with very great weight, and the most christian spirit, and have not yet been solidly refuted. To these therefore the author appeals for his excuse for the present attempt, wherein what He has done may be declared in few words.

‘ *The table of lessons for each day in the year*, was first drawn up a long time ago for his own private use, whereby in his family and closet He might regularly read through the scriptures, and meditate thereon to edification; and pleased He was to find, that according thereto the whole *New Testament* is orderly read over three times in a year, and the instructive parts of the *Old Testament*, by such a division, are gone through once a year, taking in also the two apocryphal books of Ecclesiasticus and Wisdom, which, though not universally allowed to be *canonical*, will certainly, by every one that diligently reads and attends to them, be found to contain as rich a treasure of useful maxims and observations for the conduct of life, as are in the Proverbs of Solomon, or Ecclesiastes, to which books they may well be supposed *supplemental*, and as such may be read with great pleasure and profit in our devotional services. Yet still as He would not rigidly impose any positive rule herein, every society or minister, that scruple these books, may be left to their own discretion, to read or omit them, or at any time, instead of the *chapter of the day*, may occasionally read another that appears more suitable to the particular time or circumstances. And as there are many parts of scripture not quite fit to be read to an ignorant congregation as lessons, without some explanations, the author recommends the practice of expounding the scriptures to be observed in all public assemblies of worshippers, yet in as short and plain a way as possible. Large commen-
taries

aries instruct but few ; but short expositions and practical improvements would edify all in things appertaining to godliness.

‘ The Psalms of David (as they are commonly called) are an amazing store of the most sublime and animated parts of devotion, viz. *adoration, praise, and thanksgiving*, affording the most lively views of the majesty and goodness of God, and of the psalmist’s pious joy and delight in his providence : some of them are inimitably descriptive of the temper and character of a good and upright man ; others of them are penitential and pathetic, apt to inspire the soul with awakening convictions of the danger of sin, and the indispensable duties of repentance and submission to the Divine Will, &c. But as some of them also contain matters of a more private nature, or were made for the Jews’ public use in ordinary, they should be altered so as to be entirely fit for Christian worship : for surely we ought not, in a devotional address to God as Christians, to rehearse *verbatim* psalms that were composed only for the Jews’ use, at particular times, and upon different occasions. These, therefore, the author has attempted to methodize and abridge, from the two translations in the Bible and Common Prayer, chusing such expressions as appeared to Him the clearest and most forcible, and He has purposely omitted such passages as respected only David’s own particular case, or that of the Jews, which sometimes, if not altogether, were absolutely unfit for a Christian congregation to repeat and use as parts of their own devotional exercises. What ideas or impressions the readers of them have from their promiscuous use in the daily *church-service*, He does not pretend to tell : for his own part, He has often been ashamed and afraid to utter many things therein before God, because they were quite unsuitable to his own case or temper. How few can apply to themselves Ps. x, xii, xxxviii, lii, lvi, lviii, lix, lx, lxiv, lxix, lxxiii, lxxiv, xciv ? Or great parts of Ps. xvii, xviii, xxix, xxxi, xxxii, xli, lv, lxxxviii, lxxxix, cii, cxx, cxi, or some verses in many other psalms ? Psalm vi may be suitably enough read in a time of sickness, but surely it is not proper for general public use at all times. Psalm xliv and lxxix might also be fitly enough applied at some periods of humiliation for ill success in war ; but surely in the present time, (after so many signal victories,) if we make them parts of our devotions to God, we are guilty of the greatest absurdity, not to say manifest untruth. And yet these are regularly read once a month, in all the churches of England and Ireland ! The ignorant part of our congregations do not think how to apply these or the execrations to other times and circumstances, and so either indolently, or improperly, or impiously use them. The execrations and curses in the Psalms, e. g.

Pſ. v, vii, xviii, xxxv, lxxxiii, cix, cxxix, are contrary to God's expreſs command in many texts of ſcripture, the very reverſe to our mild and benevolent Savior's precepts and example, and as uſed in devotion, bad men vent them wickedly, and ignorant men apply them to wrong purpoſes, yea ſome out of malice and revenge. If the primitive Chriſtians uſed them in this way promiſcuouſly, or miſuſed them, we know that many erred even in the apoſtles days, and we are not to continue in error for antiquity's ſake, but ought to return to God's ſacred teſtimony and truth in the ſcriptures. And therefore it is hoped, that this imperfect attempt, in the *hymns for each day of the month*, drawn up for daily uſe in *morning* and *evening ſervice*, (inſtead of the Pſalms alone and indifcriminately,) will be edifying to many, and excepted againſt by none, as ſome pains have been taken to methodize the whole, and to add (in lieu of the Pſalms or parts omitted,) many other ſublime and ſuitable paſſages of adoration, or eminent deſcriptions of the majeſty and perfections of God, that occur in the other different books of the Old Teſtament, and which cannot ſeriously be read without producing ſome good effects on every well-diſpoſed mind. And to each *hymn* is alſo added a *doxology* from the New Teſtament, in order to adapt the whole more to the uſe of a Chriſtian church, inſtead of the *Gloria Patri* ſo often repeated in the Common Prayer, yet no where to be met with in that form in the ſcriptures themſelves. What alteration therefore is made here, in *ſcripture words* alone, muſt be allowed to be leſs exceptionable to ſome ; and the author flatters himſelf He ſhall hereby offend none, that pay regard to the law and to the teſtimony of their Divine Maſter.

‘ He is longer perhaps in the parts of *adoration, praiſe, and thankſgiving*, than ſome may have thought neceſſary : but ſurely we cannot too often repeat our praiſe and thanks to God, for his infinite mercy and boundleſs goodneſs. And theſe parts of devotion were therefore thought requiſite to be larger and more explicit, than they commonly are in Chriſtian congregations ; as this is an act of worſhip, that has the beſt tendency to compoſe the mind, is directly expreſſive of our delight in God, our joy in his government, our acknowledgment of his perfections and providence, our gratitude for his multiplied bleſſings and favours to us and to all his creatures, and conſequently works in the heart the very beſt diſpoſitions to ſecure the divine acceptance. We ought certainly to thank God for paſt mercies and favours, before we preſume to aſk for more. The preſent exhortation before daily ſervice in the Common Prayer rightly admoniſhes us, to render God thanks for benefits received, before we are to pray for future bleſſings ; yet, without any regard

to this, the *thanksgiving* is deferred, until we have made all our *supplications* ! Perhaps therefore the alteration made in *this liturgy*, from the *common* course herein, will not be blamed.

‘ The *admonition*, after the *second lesson*, before the morning and evening prayers, He thinks a valuable addition to a public office of devotion, as it is designed to contain a brief summary of a Christian’s duty to God, his neighbour, and himself, which cannot be too often inculcated ; and in this way, where the *people*, by responding to the *minister*, make it their *own act*, it is not unlikely to produce a very good effect : and it seems to be that *teaching and admonishing one another*, which the apostle directed, Coloss. iii. 16.

The *litany* of the church was designed at first to be used on certain days, and not to be split in betwixt two different offices, made to be read at different times, and upon different occasions. By this intermixture, many needless repetitions are promiscuously made in confusion, and some material things so misplaced, that some things, which ought to be in the beginning, are postponed to the end of our devotions. And perhaps the introduction and conclusion, as well as some intermediate parts of it, might not improperly be altered, so as to have more of a *scriptural turn*, and not to offend any Christian of whatever private persuasion he may be : which has also been attempted in the present work ; and the whole, thus reformed, is accordingly inserted betwixt the *morning* and *evening service*, to be used at discretion by such ministers and congregations as approve it, on such days or times as they think best, instead of the other *general prayers* that are in the *common service*.

‘ In like manner, the *Te Deum* is attempted to be rendered suitable to every Christian’s use, and left at discretion to be read or not, instead of the other *hymns* in the *common morning or evening service*, affording an agreeable and useful variety.

‘ Some friends, with whom the author has conversed about this design, have thought a *creed* necessary, as agreeable to the custom and practice of our own and most Christian churches. That called the *apostle’s creed*, (but not made by them) was judged deficient ; and the other *creeds*, in the *English liturgy*, made to supply that deficiency, are perhaps in some particulars erroneous, at least disputed. What He has altered or added here on this head, (to be used occasionally at the beginning of *morning service*,) no sincere Christian can object to pronounce or assent to.

‘ For the *evening service*, on Sundays, the *ten commandments* are deemed requisite to be read, with the introduction thereunto, if approved by the minister ; and after them, is added our Saviour’s

own summary of them all, with the additional peculiar *command* our Lord himself proposed to establish, which is thought altogether as necessary for a Christian church, as the *decatalogue of the Jews* : and that there might be no interpretation in reading the whole, *one short prayer* for the observance thereof is to be repeated after all by the *people* with the *minister*?

Upon the whole, we may venture to observe, that whether or not our author's scheme be deemed worthy the attention of the legislature, it contains a variety of sensible reflections, and must be allowed to proceed from a candid, pious, and ingenuous mind ; a recommendation which we should be sorry to see wrested by malice into a presumption of our favouring dissenters. Our writings evince the contrary ; though we have always recommended charity, unanimity, and peace.

ART. IV. *The Importance of Canada considered. In Two Letters to a Noble Lord. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Doddsley.*

WERE we to judge of the sentiments of the nation from the arguments advanced by pamphleteers in relation to our conquests, we should imagine it impossible even to procure a solid or advantageous peace, except by retaining every acquisition we have made, in the course of the war, in Asia, Africa, and America. Some have taken it into their heads to exalt the value of Guadaloupe, and to affirm that this island singly is of more consequence to the trade and navigation of Great-Britain, than all her other conquests. Others, on the contrary, make slight of the sugar colony, of which commodity we before possessed more than was turned to advantage, and magnify the vast importance of Canada and Cape Breton to our fisheries and fur trade, as well as to the security of our northern colonies ; notwithstanding which we see the fortress upon the latter has been demolished, and the public opinion is still divided with respect to the former. An author of any talents may indeed suggest arguments equally strong, why the island of Goree, the settlements in the river Senegal, the island of Belleisle, the settlements of Chandernagore in the Ganges, and Pondicherry on the coast of Coromandel, should all be retained. By keeping possession of Goree, and of the entire command of the river Senegal, we should not only exclude the French from the slave trade, and thereby proportionably increase our own, but render their sugar islands dependent upon us for hands to cultivate their plantations, and entirely engross the trade carried on in gold dust, gum, bees wax, and ivory, except the slender portion still remaining in the hands of the Hollanders.

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Restitution of our conquests in the East-Indies would be equally detrimental to Great-Britain. Few persons will now be hardy enough to deny but the Asiatic trade has been the source of great wealth and commercial advantages to this kingdom; and if they did, the practice of all the other European maritime states, and the care with which our government hath always cherished this trade, are sufficient to refute their allegations. But this trade must prove beneficial, in proportion as our rivals in commerce are excluded. It was this rivalry which contributed greatly to enhance the price of the India commodities, and turn the balance against Great-Britain. It was the address of the French nation, which rendered it essentially necessary for the English company to defend their possessions, and secure their commerce, at the expence of a powerful military force. By this means, the price of all the merchandize they imported was necessarily raised on the consumer, at the same time that the dividends of the proprietors were not increased. To the intrigues of the French we may ascribe that perpetual state of inquietude in which the servants of the company have lived in India since the year 1753, the reiterated revolutions in the province of Bengal, and all the consequent expences to our government, by maintaining a strong squadron of men of war on the coast of India.

With respect to Belleisle it may be alledged, that the same motives which urged us to the reduction of the island, should now prevent our making restitution. A glance of the eye on a map, evinces what a vast extent of coast we should command by retaining this, otherways, inconsiderable spot: but do prudence and moderation dictate that we should thus give law with so high a hand? Will all the other powers of Europe sit tame spectators of the insolence with which we despise that political balance which they have been endeavouring for a century to preserve? Will the maritime states suffer us quietly to possess not only the empire of the ocean, but the commerce of all Europe? Will Spain in particular take no umbrage at the conquests we have made in the West-Indies and North-America, by which we have opened a direct communication with her most valuable possessions, and are divided even from New-Mexico by no other barrier than an extensive tract of land, by no means impassable? If we refuse listening to equitable proposals of peace, such a compensation as may reasonably be expected for the expences of the war, and proper security that the subjects of Great-Britain shall not again be molested by the endeavours of a restless, enterprising people to extend their dominion; if we should proceed in the resolution of driving the French entirely out of America, will not Spain then have cause to be jealous of our ambitious designs, and with justice
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imagine that we intend something more than the bare security of our colonies? Shall we affirm, that the naval power of Great-Britain may set Spain, and indeed all Europe, at defiance? This, indeed, may be alledged with some shadow of truth, could the people always furnish the supplies which have been liberally bestowed on the late administration. But the most prosperous wars have their boundaries, and the most useful conquests their limits. The nation hath been taxed beyond what industry can bear for any considerable time; the effects of which are less sensibly felt at present, than they will be when a peace has opened the ports of our rivals, and set their manufactures again at work. It is then we shall feel the consequences of taxes, that necessarily increase the wages of labour, and enable our enemies to undersell us at every market in the world. A war with Spain might, in this point of view, prove salutary to individuals; it might bring immense treasures into the kingdom; but as it must be supported at the expence of industry, it would in the end become ruinous, and productive of evils more than equivalent to all the advantages deducible by the most sanguine imagination. What then shall we think of a set of scribblers, whose endeavour it is to render the multitude dissatisfied with such terms of accommodation as a wise administration ought to accept? Is it that they penetrate no further than the surface of things; or that they endeavour to render their writings popular, at the expence of the interest of their country? We cannot help regarding as factious, corrupt hirelings, or weak enthusiasts, those obscure pamphleteers, who spirit up the public to demand more from the administration than the present circumstances will allow; who would have the ministry treat with the enemies of Great-Britain, as if this island was entirely abstracted from the affairs of the continent, and insist upon not making restitution of one inch of land on account of Hanover and the king of Prussia; as if the government had all this while maintained, at a prodigious expence, an army in Germany only for parade, and the emolument of divers petty, needy, mercenary princes.

Our author is more reasonable than most of the writers who have treated the same subject. It is not his design to raise the importance of Canada, by depreciating the other conquests made by the British arms, but to demonstrate that all the frontiers hitherto sketched out for our settlements in North-America, are inadequate to the purpose of rendering them perfectly secure from future encroachments. His position is, that the simple possession of Canada, with the westward of the Great Lakes, can be of no consequence to the French; by which he means no more than that Chersonesus formed by the lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron; in a word, what was surrendered

to us by the capitulation of Montreal. 'Can we suppose, says he, that they would be desirous of this cession; that they would sacrifice any advantage to it in another part of the world, unless they had other views, and were confident that by means of their influence over the Indians, they could make encroachments on our settlements.' He proves, that whoever possesses the dominion of the lake Frontenac, and the pass at Niagara, must engross the whole fur trade.

'Niagara is the great and immediate mart for all those numerous tribes of Indians who inhabit the westward of the lakes, and whom we comprehend under the general name of Uttawawas; the trade of Michilimakinac on the streights betwixt Huron and Mishigan centers here, as likewise that of the lake Superior; for the other communication from Canada with these upper lakes by the Uttawa river is rendered so difficult by its being frozen up for many months in the year, and its numerous rifts and cascades, that it does not answer the trouble and expence. It was this furr trade which enriched the inhabitants of Canada, and enabled them to purchase and make use of the manufactures of their mother country, which when they are totally deprived of, by what means they can make any profitable returns to France, or add to the revenue of its government, I confess I am not able to discover. As to their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, and the mouth of the river St. Laurence, I do not see that the possession of Quebec or Montreal relates to it, more than would the possession of Constantinople; at these places they cure no fish, and they are infinitely at too great a distance to be of any protection to the vessels employed in this business; Gaspie, therefore, or any little place on either side of the gulf, would be more important in regard to this article. As from these reasons it appears that Canada in itself would be of no consequence, but rather an incumbrance to France, I must repeat, that I think it idle to imagine that they would insist on the cession of it, or indeed accept it, unless they entertained views of removing us from the dominion of the lakes, and were confident of their abilities to effect it.'

He endeavours to shew, from the customs, the policy, and the manners of the Indians, the probability that the French would be able to execute this design, should we depend upon that barrier sketched out by certain political writers along Oswego, Niagara, Presque Isle, and the rivers Au Beuf and Ohio; a frontier which, from the nature of the country, and other circumstances, he thinks indefensible, were the forts specified permitted by the Six Nations, or Iroquois. One reason why the Indians would take part with our enemies, he couches in the following terms:

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‘ They formerly considered us in the light of a counterpoise to the power of the French, their ancient and natural enemies ; but since the reduction of Quebec, they have considered us in a very different and less favourable light. It is unnecessary to enter into the particulars of our conduct the last year in the river St. Laurence, wherein they imagined themselves injured, but certain it is, they did imagine themselves injured, and certain it is, they glow with ardor for an opportunity to revenge these injuries, which, whether real or imaginary, I shall not pretend to determine. But supposing pique and resentment out of the question, would not their politics urge them to conspire against us ? The Indians are a people, who of all others abhor most the thoughts of being dependents ; their natural sagacity, of which no race of men possess more, would dictate to them the necessity of expelling us from the dominion of the lakes, and reducing our power to an equality at least with that of the French ; they would then be courted by both parties, and restored to their ancient importance. Of their power to effect this, we have a sufficient specimen in the calamities we have suffered from the Shawanese and Delawars ; nations extremely inferior both in numbers and reputation for war to the Iroquois, who are perfectly acquainted with every foot of land, every hollow, every advantageous pass on the communication through which this visionary frontier must be supported ; visionary I must call it ; and should we be unhappy enough to be deluded by this idle dream, the miserable consequences may be foretold, without being possessed of the spirit of divination ; the instant these forts fall (which by being cut off from all the means of support must soon happen) the French will re-establish themselves firmly in the dominion of the lakes, pour daily fresh troops into Canada, and by strengthening and populating the communication betwixt the river St. Laurence and Mississippi surround our colonies, which must end in our total expulsion from America.’

The second letter treats of the conduct of the English provinces towards the Indians, and the temper, disposition, and present situation of those numerous nations with respect to our colonies. Here our author displays a perfect acquaintance with the views, schemes, designs, and disposition of these savages, with the nature of the country, the villainous practices of some of those persons entrusted by the government with the management of our colonies, and with a variety of other important particulars which we have not seen so clearly handled by any former writer. Upon the whole, our author is intelligent, cool, and sensible ; he writes without prejudice ; he seems to have no view besides the interest of his country, and his arguments carry conviction, because they are offered with candour, and
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founded upon reason and scrupulous information. This must be our apology for extending this article beyond the limits usually assigned to productions of this bulk.

ART. V. *Mathematical Tracts of the late Benjamin Robins, Esq; Fellow of the Royal Society, and Engineer-General to the Honourable the East-India Company. In Two Vols. By James Wilson, M. D. 8vo. Pr. 10s. 6d. Nourse,*

THE learned editor has inserted nothing in this collection but what was before known to the public in detached pieces, except the preface, in which we meet with a few anecdotes of the ingenious Mr. Robins, a general estimate of his geometrical talents, and a variety of judicious, mathematical observations; together with an appendix, in which Dr. Wilson undertakes to vindicate the memory of his friend from certain injurious charges that dropped from the pens of divers learned gentlemen in the heat of disputation, or the jealousy of discovery. We shall first lay before the reader a short view of the labours of the editor, as the only part of the publication with which they may possibly be unacquainted, and then proceed to enumerate the treatises wrote by Mr. Robins, which the doctor has here collected.

Mr. Robins was born at Bath in the year 1707, and had exhibited very early proofs of distinguishing genius. His parents were quakers, in too narrow circumstances to give him all the advantages of education, had they been disposed to promote his studies in those branches of knowledge which persons of their religious persuasion deem vain and unnecessary to the explication of the holy scriptures, and the comprehension of divine subjects. His talents first discovered themselves in the mathematics, in which, almost unassisted, he made so extraordinary advances, that he was advised, by particular friends, to commence teacher in London, where his genius would meet with encouragement, and the means of improvement. Dr. Pemberton's approbation of some geometrical solutions communicated to him, determined Mr. Robins to pursue the scheme proposed. He removed to this great scene of action, where merit is frequently suffered to pine in want and obscurity, and in his 20th year produced a favourable specimen of his capacity, by demonstrating a proposition of Sir Isaac Newton's treatise *De quadratura curvarum*, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1727. This paper, and a refutation of a piece published by the celebrated Bernoulli, raised his character, and procured him a number of scholars, whom he instructed in mathematics

matics and natural philosophy, upon a plan peculiar to himself but extremely rational and ingenious.

Whatever reputation Mr. Robins acquired by this method of instruction, and his geometrical publications, the profession of a teacher not suiting with his active disposition, he gradually relinquished it, and entered upon a course more busy, and likely to elevate him to that sphere of life at which he aspired. He tried several laborious experiments in gunnery, applied himself to the study of fortification, and the mechanic arts, founded upon mathematical principles; such as the constructing mills, building bridges, draining fens, forming harbours, and rendering rivers navigable. He improved his speculative knowledge in fortification, by an actual survey of the best fortresses in the Netherlands. On his return, he entered upon some geometrical and political controversies, which considerably augmented his reputation. We shall exhibit an account of the latter in the words of the learned editor, reserving our remarks on the former to the close of the article.

‘ In the year 1739 there came out three pamphlets, which acquired him great reputation, though they were written very hastily, as the incidents that occasioned them were sudden and urgent.

‘ The first was intitled, *Observations on the present convention with Spain*. Here the specious veil, with which some had endeavoured to cover the meanness of this transaction, was entirely removed; and all the invincible arguments against it set in the strongest light, which very arguments were afterwards made use of, when it became matter of debate in parliament.

‘ The second was called, *A narrative of what passed in the Common Hall of the Citizens of London assembled for the Election of a Lord-Mayor*. This, though composed indeed on a less momentous affair, yet contained in it surprising strokes of true oratory.

‘ The third was written on the following occasion. Many eminent patriots, as they were then styled, upon the sanction given by the house of commons to the Spanish convention, notwithstanding all their weighty speeches and reasons against it, became so disgusted, that they took a resolution from that time of not attending the business of parliament; which proceeding, called a secession, was highly resented by the other side; and the seceders at length returned as usual to their seats, in the house. This defection being by many deemed rash, Mr. Robins was requested to write an apology for it. The pamphlet he composed was delivered to a principal person concerned, in
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order to be transcribed, and the original destroyed, the better to conceal the real writer ; whose condition in life might not be able to secure him from the resentment, the freedoms taken in it, might provoke. After some alterations to soften matters were made, and a preface prefixed, neither of which Mr. Robins by any means could approve, it was at length published under this title : *An Address to the Electors and other free Subjects of Great-Britain occasioned by the late Secession. In which is contained a particular Account of all our Negotiations with Spain, and their Treatment of us for above ten Years past.*

The editor acquaints us that this piece was so well received, though greatly disfigured and castrated, that Mr. Robins was chosen secretary, by the country party, to the committee appointed to examine into the conduct of the earl of Orford, while at the head of the ministry. It was after finishing, with distinguished credit, the office of secretary to this committee, that Mr. Robins published his *Treatise on Gunnery*, and in consequence of a critique upon that work, read several dissertations, and made a variety of experiments on the resistance of air, before the Royal Society, which obtained him the honour of a gold medal, and the following compliment from the president Mr. Folkes, which we insert as a pretty accurate account of the novel doctrines advanced in the new principles of gunnery, by Mr. Robins.

‘ GENTLEMEN,

‘ The curious and valuable experiments, which have lately been made before you, by our very worthy brother of the Society, Mr. Benjamin Robins, concerning the resistance given by the air to bodies in motion ; particularly to military projectiles, and such others as are made to pass through that medium with great velocities ; could not escape the attention of my honoured predecessor, your late president, Sir Hans Sloane : who in his present retirement from business, still applies himself with unwearied diligence, to all sorts of learned and philosophical enquiries.

‘ He has still the same concern for the prosperity and for the honour of this body : and the knowledge and information he daily receives of every thing remarkable that passes amongst us, or that is communicated to us from without, affords him no less satisfaction, than when the weight of fewer years, and a more vigorous state of health, allowed him to give so constant and so regular an attendance at our meetings, during so long a period of time, and through the several offices he has held in the society.

‘ As I say the before mentioned experiments could not escape his notice, so neither would he let them want the sanction of his own approbation : and he has therefore this year, as the surviving executor of the late sir Godfrey Copley, nominated Mr. Robins to receive the annual prize medal of gold, bestowed by the Society in consequence of sir Godfrey's benefaction.

‘ I accordingly, at a late meeting of your council, acquainted the gentlemen there present, with this appointment: who were unanimously pleased to approve of the same, and to put into my hands a medal, upon which, according to their order, I have caused Mr. Robins's name, and the date of the present year to be engraved.

‘ It is from these experiments, and from those others which Mr. Robins is still preparing to exhibit, that we may expect to see compleated the whole, and the true theory of projectiles. What Galileo and Torricelli, who first demonstrated the motions of these bodies in vacuo, knew to be still wanting in their theories, will hereby be supplied : and these particulars will at last become known, which they wished that future observers would make diligent and careful experiment about.

‘ The great sir Isaac Newton, who did so much honour, when living, not only to this society, and to this chair ; not only to this country, and to the age he lived in, but to the world in general, and to human nature itself : this great man, I say, in his admirable Principia, investigated the laws of the resistances made to bodies in motion, during their passage through the air and other fluids, and, those upon different theories, and upon different suppositions. He also made experiments upon the resistance given to funipendulous bodies in their oscillations, and to others in their fall, which he caused to be dropped for that purpose from the highest part of the cupola of St. Paul's church ; but he never had the opportunity of making trials, upon those much greater resistances, that shells and bullets are impeded by, in those immense velocities with which they are thrown from military engines.

‘ And hence it has come to pass, that succeeding writers, even those of the first class, and who are the most justly distinguished by their great knowledge and abilities, not sufficiently attending to the true theory of these motions, have been of opinion, ‘ that in large shot of metal, whose weight many thousand times surpasses that of the air, and whose force is very great, in proportion to the surface wherewith they press thereon, this opposition is scarce discernable, and as such may, in all computations, concerning the ranges of great and weighty bombs, be very safely neglected.’

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‘ This is one of those principles, which the learned gentleman who favoured us with these experiments, very particularly proposed to examine, and that both theoretically and practically; and he has accordingly shewn, by a series of the most curious and most ingeniously contrived experiments, if not the absolute quantities of these resistances in all cases, at least that they are enormously great, much beyond what any former theories had assigned, and such as are absolutely necessary to be considered in all strict reasonings concerning these matters: particularly, as they in so remarkable a manner curtail and diminish the great ranges of all sorts of cannon and mortar-pieces.

‘ He has also by the way had occasion to take notice of several new, and surprising phænomena attending these sorts of motions: such as the different resistances, that are given by the same medium, to one and the same body, when put into motion with the same velocity, and when presenting to the resisting medium, the same or an equal superficies, but only in a different direction.

‘ Mr. Robins has yet farther pushed his trials, to certain deflexions, hitherto entirely unconsidered, of bullets and other projectiles from the vertical plane in which the shot is made; and which he has with great subtilty accounted for, from a rotatory motion that bullets accidentally acquire about an axis: and, as a confirmation of his theory, he has in many cases been able either to prevent this deflexion, or to direct it such way as he thought proper.

‘ The last particular I shall here take notice of, is a most extraordinary, and astonishing encrease of the resistance, and which seems in a manner to take place all at once, and this when the velocity comes to be that of between eleven and twelve hundred feet in one second of time. This encrease however only concerns the absolute quantity of the resistance, the law of it continuing in other respects nearly the same as before: and it is remarkable farther, that the case wherein this encrease of resistance becomes observable, is that, wherein the velocity of the shot, is at least equal to that velocity with which sounds are propagated: whence Mr. Robins has with great sagacity offered his reasons to believe, that in this case the air does not make its vibrations sufficiently fast, to return instantaneously into the place the bullet has left; but that the bullet then leaves a vacuum behind it; whereby it becomes exposed to the whole resistance, the body of air before it is capable of giving.

‘ Should I but barely enumerate all the particulars in these experiments, that have appeared to myself both curious and
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instructive, I must by far exceed the bounds, that can reasonably be allowed me on the present occasion. I shall therefore only add, that as I cannot sufficiently admire the elegance and the judgment, with which the gentleman's experiments have been contrived and conducted; so neither can I enough commend the laudable and indefatigable pains he has taken, in making so very many experiments himself, and in collecting also so many others from elsewhere; all which he has deduced such computations from, as might enable him to compare the same with, and thereby to confirm and ascertain his theories.

‘ Mr. ROBINS,

‘ It is now, sir, with the greatest satisfaction that I can assure you of the high esteem the Royal Society have for you, and of the just value they set upon your very curious and useful communications. It is by their command, and in their name, that I put into your hand this faithful token of their regard: in which you will not attend to the smallness of the gift, but consider it as it comes from a Society, neither abounding in sums of silver or gold, not pursuing or coveting worldly riches, but the improvement only of philosophical knowledge. You will please therefore in such a light to accept this medal, and in some sort to compare it to those crowns, that were given to eminent persons, in the first ages of simplicity of the ancient Greeks; and which, although only wreaths of olive, or even garlands of grass, were not on that account the less esteemed by those upon whom they were bestowed, as they were still authentic testimonials, of the most exalted virtue, and the most distinguished merit.’

This treatise on gunnery it was, that produced an invitation to Mr. Robins from the late prince of Orange, to assist in the defence of Bergen-op-Zoom, then besieged by the French; in consequence of which he set out for the Netherlands, but did not arrive at the Dutch court, before the town was entered by the besiegers. Disappointed of several projects of becoming serviceable to his country, Mr. Robins remained unemployed, except in literary avocations, until the year 1749, when his own merit, and the friendships he had contracted, recommended him to the honourable the East-India company, by whom he was sent, in quality of engineer-general, to Madras, to put their settlements in a state of defence.

‘ The company's terms were both advantageous and honourable. There was settled upon him five hundred pounds per annum during his life; on condition that he continued in their service five years. He was also entrusted with the appointment
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of all, that were to be employed under him ; and such an order was made for furnishing him with what sums of money he should think necessary towards carrying on the works he undertook, as was never passed on the like occasion ; so great was the confidence the company reposed in Mr. Robins's integrity as well as ability ; in neither of which did they find themselves deceived ; and indeed he acted in all occurrences, through every scene of life, with the utmost generosity and disinterestedness ; and never offered to undertake any thing, whereof he was not a perfect master.'

' In the voyage his ship was very near being cast away ; but he arrived at the Indies on the 13th of July 1750.

' There he immediately set about his proper business with unwearied diligence ; and he compleatly formed plans for Fort St. David and Madras. But he lived not to put these in execution. For the great difference in the climate was beyond his constitution to support : which was always delicate, though till then, he scarce ever had a fit of sickness.

' In September 1750, he was attacked by a fever, out of which he recovered ; but about eight months after, he fell into a languishing condition, in which state he continued to his death. When he had reason to believe, that was not far off, he expressed himself displeased, the physicians had not made him acquainted with his real case sooner, that he might have lost no time in expectation of recovering ; and even then exerted himself as much as possible in the duty of his office, expiring at Fort St. David the 29th of July 1751 with his pen in his hand, as he was drawing up for the company, an account of the posture of their affairs.

' The fortifications of Fort St. David have been since finished, and they are at work upon those of Madras, according to Mr. Robins's plans. These I have heard highly praised by many intelligent persons ; who have been upon the spot. And what is still more, I have been informed, that they were approved of by the brave colonel Clive ; who through the force of genius alone becoming a self-taught commander, has with matchless conduct, as well as valour, retrieved our sinking affairs in those parts of the world.

' As soon as the news of Mr. Robins's death arrived here, great numbers, besides his particular friends and acquaintance, strongly expressed their concern at the loss of so valuable a person : and as his letter was read to the court of the East India directors, a most visible appearance of sorrow shewed itself on the countenance of all present ; and the regard the company

had for Mr. Robins's merit, and their sense of the services he did them, the short time he lived in their employments, induced them to behave with great generosity towards his father.

‘ Mr. Robins left also a most amiable character behind him in the Indies; for I have learnt from many persons, who have come from thence, that his memory is still held there in the highest estimation by all ranks of people. And no wonder that a person well qualified in every branch of valuable learning, such a proficient both in practice and theory of useful arts, as likewise so capable and ready to communicate his knowledge to others, and endowed with a most candid, generous and disinterested mind, and withal a most spritely and agreeable companion, should have rendered himself universally acceptable.

‘ I must not omit mentioning, that he took care to make a sufficient provision for his father, Mr. John Robins, by purchasing an annuity for the old gentleman's life: who, at the Bath till his ninety-second year, when he died in 1758, enjoyed a perfect state of health, having had nothing so much to regret, as the loss of the only child he ever had; whose reputation in the world, and constant affectionate behaviour towards him, were the chief consolation of his declining age.

‘ By his last will Mr. Robins left the publishing his works to his honoured and intimate friend Martin Folkes, Esq; president of the Royal Society, and to myself; but as that excellent person had for some time been rendered incapable, by a paralytic disorder, of which he is since dead, of bearing a part in this charge; Mr. Robins's papers were entrusted to me by his executor Mr. Thomas Lewis.’

These trifling particulars we have mentioned, because the public always interests itself in every circumstance relating to persons who have acquired eminence in any branch of literature, though in their lives, perhaps, they were neglected and despised. It must be observed that Dr. Wilson has enriched his narrative with a short analysis of Mr. Robins's writings, and a great number of learned remarks in geometry and physical knowledge, both which he appears to have studied intimately. Many of these, however, may appear ostentatious and unreasonable, as every occasion is seized for introducing his reflections upon the ancient and modern geometry. As to ourselves, we are satisfied with the instruction they afford, without being at all disgusted at the manner which the doctor hath chosen to render his erudition useful.

We proceed now to the appendix, in which Dr. Wilson vindicates his friend. The first point he labours, is, to rescue his friend from the imputation of plagiarism, which he effects
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by leaving it a moot point whether his other friend, Dr. Pemberton, had not been the literary huffar, and Mr. Robins only the receiver of the plunder. The case is as follows: Dr. Simson of Glasgow, had demonstrated that celebrated problem of Alhazon, 'to find the ray, which, issuing from a given point, should be reflected by a spherical surface to the eye, in any given position,' long before the year 1729. About that time he began to teach it publicly in his class, and to give his pupils copies of it, as it afterwards appeared in his treatise on Conic Sections; and in the year 1739, Mr. Robins made use of this demonstration as his own, in his severe critique upon Dr. Smith's Optics.

In the second edition of Simson's Conic Sections, the doctor complains that Mr. Robins should have taken no notice of the method he came by this demonstration; '*Num eam ipse invenerat, aut aliunde acceperat*;' and indeed insinuates, that he was less candid than might have been expected from a gentleman, whose genius stood in no need of borrowed discoveries. This matter Dr. Wilson endeavours to clear up, by acquainting us, that Mr. Robins had the demonstration from Dr. Pemberton, but was not at liberty to use his name; and that the said Dr. Pemberton had considered the problem above eighteen years before, and had communicated it to Dr. Wilson when they were fellow students at Paris. Without, however, calling the doctor's veracity in question, we cannot help remarking that it looks a little ostentatious in Mr. Robins to publish directly, as if it were his own, a demonstration which he had from another person, especially as the problem was of importance, and but imperfectly solved by the best mathematicians. He might at least have mentioned, that it had been communicated to him by a friend, whose name he was not at liberty to make public. Another extraordinary circumstance is, that Dr. Pemberton should have kept by him for the space of eighteen years, a demonstration that reflects more honour on his genius than all the publications of his life, and at last suffer it to see the light as the work of another. The doctor had not made so many important discoveries in geometry or physics, as to make light of a demonstration that distinguishes great depth and ability in both. He was daily communicating something to the public, either in his own name, or through the channel of the Philosophical Transactions, less deserving the public attention; whence we may fairly conclude, that Dr. Pemberton's claim must rest wholly upon his own and his friends credit, which it is not our intention to dispute, though we think ourselves supported in this by strong presumptions. While the literary world is benefited by a discovery, it is nothing to us who is the real author; that point we leave to be adjusted by the different pretenders.

The ingenious M. Buffon is the next person attacked by Dr Wilson in defence of his friend. The controversy between the late learned bishop of Cloyne, under the name of the Analyst, and a gentleman who called himself Philalethes Cantabrigiensis, is well known. Mr. Robins too opposed himself to the Analyst, but with different weapons from Philalethes, which produced a rupture between the parties, who might be considered as allies. They had jointly defended Newton, and the legitimate principles of fluxions, against the bishop; but they quarrelled about the method of defence, and grew more violent against each other than they had ever been against the common enemy. Dr. Wilson alledges, that Philalethes was jealous of the superiority of Mr. Robins, and is extremely angry with M. Buffon, for determining the dispute in favour of the former. All the French philosophers, he says, have come into Mr. Robins's method of explaining Sir Isaac Newton's doctrine; in confirmation of which he quotes a passage from Mr. Bougainville, which, in our opinion, proves nothing more than that this writer does not understand the works of the great Newton, or the doctrines which he pretends to adopt. *Le calcul de Newton est independant de la realité des quantités infiniment petites.* Say you so, Mr. Bougainville! Cast your eyes on the tenth proposition of the second book of the Principia, and you will there see whether the calculus of Newton be independent of the reality of infinitely small quantities.

Our limits will not permit us to enter upon an intelligible review of this controversy; sufficient it is, that our learned editor wrests every expression of the best modern mathematicians, that bears any affinity to the sentiments of his author, into a direct approbation of his opinions, though possibly they might never have perused them; or else into an indirect hint that they borrowed of Mr. Robins. This we think pretty evident, with respect to the quotations made from Mr. Colin M'Laurin's introduction to his Treatise of Fluxions, though we are fully persuaded that great man was too candid, too generous, and too well acquainted with his own strength, to borrow the aid of a gentleman, who, though a man of genius, was to him but a pigmy in geometry.

After some animadversions on D'Alembert, whose name will be handed down with glory to posterity, when the memories of half the dabblers in geometry of the age will be forgot, for concurring in certain opinions with Bernoulli, in opposition to Sir Isaac Newton, or rather to Mr. Robins; he proceeds to a review of the controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, about the invention of fluxions; a subject upon which it is almost impossible to throw any new lights, or to add to what
 Newton

Newton has so candidly and ably offered in support of his own pretensions. Every sciolist has consulted the *Commercium Epistolicum*, and the papers relative to this controversy in the Philosophical Transactions, which are alone sufficient to vindicate the honour of the immortal Newton. We shall therefore drop the subject, and conclude the article with the account the editor has given of Mr. Robins's mathematical treatises, all of which have probably been long since known to our geometrical readers. The speech we have quoted of Mr. Folkes conveys a sufficient idea of the treatise on gunnery, which composes the first volume. In the preface to this work, Mr. Robins gives an account of the progress of modern fortification, of the invention of gunpowder, and of what had already been effected in gunnery.

The next treatise we meet with, is, 'A Discourse concerning the Nature and Certainty of Sir Isaac Newton's Methods of Fluxions, and of prime and ultimate Ratios.' It was published in the year 1735, to obviate all the objections advanced by the author of the Analyst against Sir Isaac Newton's method of Fluxions. Dr. Wilson gives the following satisfactory account of this admirable little treatise:

'Towards the illustrating the nature of fluxions, it is there at the beginning observed, that as the fluxion of a line is the velocity or degree of swiftness of a point describing in its motion that line; so the fluxions of surfaces and solids may be expressed by the velocities of points describing lines, that increase proportionally with those quantities.

'Next the fundamental properties of fluxions are demonstrated after the manner of the ancients in the most rigid form; and it is shewn how to apply them to the determining the tangents and areas of curves. Then is given a full and clear account of the several orders of fluxions, or the variations in the velocities of increasing and decreasing; and the use of second fluxions is illustrated in the investigating from a new consideration the curvature of curves. As here in demonstrating the fluxion of a power Sir Isaac Newton's *Binomial Theorem* is introduced; so in the *Present State of the Republic of Letters* for October 1735, there is published a demonstration of it independent on that theorem.

'After follows a very distinct relation of Sir Isaac Newton's method of prime and ultimate ratios, and how it may be applied to the purposes, for which it had been shewn, fluxions might be used; and there is given another new way of determining the curvature of curves. Here is fully made out the connexion between this method and that of the ancient geometers,

meters, called exhaustions: so that it may be of no small service to young mathematicians, for their more ready perceiving the force of the demonstrations in the Principia.

'The last part illustrates Sir Isaac Newton's way of computing the fluxions of quantities; concluding with an explanation of what he had delivered concerning their Momenta. And this particular is still farther prosecuted in the abovementioned journal.'

The three next discourses that occur in the second volume, were written in defence of the above explication of fluxions, attacked, as it seems, by Philalethes Cantabrigiensis, and published in *The Present State of Letters* for the years 1735 and 1736. The paper which next occurs, is a demonstration of the 11th proposition of Sir Isaac Newton's *Treatise of Quadratures*, extracted from the *Philosophical Transactions*. The next succeeding tract is a criticism and refutation of Bernoulli's Discourse on the Laws of the Communication of Motion; and the last tract, a warm, severe, and indeed bitter critique on a treatise entitled *Mechanica*, on the system of optics by the very ingenious Dr. Smith of Cambridge, and on the discourse on distinct and indistinct vision, by Dr. Jurin. These criticisms, we are sorry to observe, bear all the marks of heat, passion, and keen resentment; they discover, however, a great ability and quickness of conception in Mr. Robins.

ART. VI. *The Vegetable System. Or, the Internal Structure, and the Life of Plants, their Parts and Nourishment explained; their Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species, ascertained and described; in a Method altogether new. Comprehending an Artificial Index, and a Natural System. With Figures of all the Plants; designed and engraved by the Author. The Whole from Nature only. By John Hill, M. D. Vol. II. Part I. Containing the whole Series of Plants with radiated Flowers. Fel. Pr. 2l. 12s. 6d. Baldwin.*

THE reader hath seen an account of the first part of this work in the eighth volume of the Critical Review, p. 271, where we endeavoured to give a fair estimate of Dr. Hill's talents, without prejudice against the man, or partiality for the writer. We have been sometimes disgusted at the doctor's pretensions; we have always paid the due respect to his genius, and praised without reserve whatever was commendable in the multiplicity of his publications. It is with pleasure we observe from his preface, that a gentleman who is certainly calculated by nature for promoting botany, is raised by the patronage of the earl of Bute, above those low cares which distract the mind, and

and divert the attention from the pursuit of knowledge to the means of subsistence. We congratulate our author on his being restored to the use of natural liberty, and placed in a situation where he may indulge his genius, without shaping it to the will of his employers.

His future productions, we doubt not, will be such as may reflect honour on his noble benefactor, and prove an inducement to the great to extend their influence to the ingenious, by evincing, that it rather sharpens the wit, and gives spur to ambition, than that it slackens industry, and produces a habit of sloth and indolence. Already we can perceive the effects of the *otium cum dignitate* on the doctor, whose publications have been less numerous within this twelvemonth than at any period within our memory; and we heartily wish he may be able to persevere in the pious resolution of giving less employment to us periodical writers. Though the performance under consideration cannot be said to smell of the lamp, and appears to us to be little more than a short compilation from the author's former botanical works, it is nevertheless beautified with such a variety of plates, elegantly engraved, and figures of plants accurately described, as evidently point out the munificent hand of some very powerful patronage, and must necessarily prove a valuable addition to this entertaining branch of natural knowledge.

The doctor begins with examining the effects of heat or fire on vegetables; and of air, earth, water, and the seasons upon vegetation; he assigns the causes of the rise and fall of sap; of the fall and permanency of the leaf, which, in our opinion, he justly ascribes to heat and cold. The philosophy contained in these chapters consists chiefly of hints and probable assertions, which the author may one day be induced to extend for the satisfaction of cavillers and unbelievers.

The second book treats of the external parts of plants, beginning with the different characters of roots, stems, *fulcra*, which the doctor translates *supporters*, or *appendages*, leaves with the characters of their outlines, angles, divisions, terminations, edges, surfaces, substances, composition, and places, each of these characters being elucidated with beautiful engravings. Next we have delineations of the parts subservient to fructification, of the receptacles of flowers and fruits, and of the varieties occasioned in the appearance of the same plants from luxuriant nourishment, or other accidents.

The third book affords the greatest entertainment to the scholar who is not a mere practical botanist. Here the doctor examines

examines the different systems proposed by botanic writers, in order to shew the necessity of some new undertaking in this way, a promise of which he makes towards the close of the subject. The systems specified are those of Cæsalpinus, Morison, Ray, Herman, Rivinus, Tournefort, Boerhaave, Magnol, Linnæus, Royen, Haller, Wachendorffius, and Gleditsch. All of these are condemned in some particulars, and we believe with good reason ; but we could wish the doctor had been more sparing of those severe reflections, which he liberally bestows on their borrowing from each other without acknowledging the obligation, until himself had been intirely acquitted of this ungrateful plagiarism. We are certainly obliged to him for the concise and distinct view he hath exhibited of each of the preceding systems, and his remarks upon them, which have all the appearance of profound knowledge in this study ; but we dislike the frequent insinuations of superiority thrown out under the shadow of candour. Haller, is our author's great favourite, and Linnæus he seems to eye with the jealousy of a rival, whom he condemns with faint applause, as the reader will perceive by the mixture of praise and censure in the following extract.

‘ Ray, Royen, and Haller, are the only authors that have, in spite of their method, attempted to follow nature : all others have pitched upon some particular part of the fructification, as the fruit, the number, regularity, or irregularity of the petals ; shape of the flower ; or shape and number of the cup-leaves ; or number of the chives and pointals. From one or other of these they have taken the characters of their classes : that done, the whole vegetable race are distributed under some of those great divisions ; though commonly numbers are put together that agree in no one thing, but the arbitrary character of the class.

‘ Is it therefore any wonder that these methods are as repugnant to nature as to one another ? Can we be surpris'd at the cruel wars every new system produced among botanists ? Each systematic looked upon his own method as the rule of nature ; and consequently attacked all distributions that did not coincide with his. But in truth every author went on separate principles ; the majority agreeing only in neglecting nature. One had therefore no right to censure the other, provided he kept strictly to his own rule. And let me here observe, that the very worst, the most unnatural of these productions, have been of great use to the study of botany. The father of it had some favourite part of a vegetable he preferred to the rest ; he examines this in every light, and gives us a thousand good observations

vations relating to it : others do the same. It is therefore to the united endeavours of these contending heroes we owe our knowledge of the various organs of plants ; their writings have served for scaffolds to Ray, Haller, and Linnæus.

‘ Whoever excels these must still begin to mount by the assistance of those that went before him. The superior genius of Linnæus has, in his *Philosop. Bot.* in his characters, &c. despised these helps, and explored untrodden paths : what was before him vague and uncertain, he has reduced to order and permanency ; and even formed an alphabet, a new language, for this delightful science ; freed it from a thousand defects, and embellished it more in a few years, than all the labours of antiquity had done in many ages. But still a great deal remains ; for Linnæus is arbitrary, and nature is yet neglected.

‘ Systems of plants seem to be necessary for two distinct purposes ; the one to assist the memory ; the other to range vegetables, in such a manner, that every tribe, division, and family, may seem to be allied to those that precede, as well as follow it. In this last distribution, no arbitrary character of tribes, &c. is upon any account to separate plants naturally connected : this system is therefore more adapted to a natural history, than to facilitate the discovery of an unknown plant.

‘ We have seen, in running over the various methods, that they have been reputed good or bad, according as they approach nature ; hence the disputes between writers on botany. Whereas, in truth, though some approach nearer the mark than others, no system extant hitherto at all deserves the appellation of natural.

‘ All have had in view the two very different purposes mentioned above, which appear incompatible with one another ; they must therefore be separated, and nature severely followed in the latter, though attended with a thousand difficulties to the learner : not but that ways will be found to obviate many of them.

‘ Previous to the natural system, an artificial one must be formed, merely to assist the memory, and make us certain of the plant we examine : for reason tells us, we must know a thing by sight, before we can pretend to assign it a proper place.

And certainly, such a system may be formed for this purpose, as with very little time or trouble, will enable a person unacquainted with botany, to find out an unknown plant as certainly as he would a word in a dictionary.

‘ This will suit alike all the purposes of beginners ; for, beside the regular students, there are many people of distinction possessed of great variety of plants, that have neither time nor inclination for botanical researches, and yet wish to name a tree or herb that draws their attention. For these, and for the fair sex, this index is calculated. It has therefore no title to the name of system ; let it be called a botanical index or dictionary. Here we fix upon arbitrary characters for classes, tribes, and divisions ; under these every genus must be marshalled, and, in order to keep the genera sacred and entire, wherever there are found species in a genus, differing from the characters its companions range under, the genus will be repeated in some other class, to whose laws the dissenting species will submit, and that, toties quoties, wherever such difference appears. What is said with regard to classes, holds also in the inferior orders ; so that in this index we shall find a genus, not only repeated in different classes, but several times in the same class under different orders. This will be so far from breeding confusion, that it will produce an absolute certainty of the plant sought for : and to make it still more easy, the flower of each plant, expressive of the particular character it is ranged under ; its habit, and its other distinctive parts, will be engraved. This will be sufficient to answer all the views intended by this index. Here then all genus's will be kept intire, tho' in their arrangement, nature will be totally neglected : and with regard to the species, the part from whence the specific character is drawn, whether it be leaf, flower, habit, &c. will be also engraved.

‘ Thus we have an universal dictionary to the vegetable kingdom, equally useful to the young beginner, and the real botanist ; for where is the man blest with a sufficient memory to retain the marks of so many thousand vegetables.

‘ Let not some critic tell us, after this declaration, that we break all natural classes, and separate near relations ; we mean to do so. We mean, in the following work, to have no mercy upon any class, any order, any system, that stops a minute our pursuit. With the utmost reverence for nature, we chuse in this performance an easier guide ; and if we attain the end proposed, this mere artificial index shall pave the way to a system of another kind ; we are bold to say, a more natural one, than has hitherto appeared : and so indeed it must be, or we should scarcely think it worth our while to give it to our country.’

The next period is, we must confess, to us altogether unintelligible. ‘ It might be expected, perhaps, says the doctor, that

that the method of Linnæus should be assumed as this artificial system, or index, of plants ; but we have shewn its imperfections for that service. We shall be infinitely obliged to him for the materials with which a new and more determinate artificial system may be formed ; but more consideration, and further researches into nature, the only sure guides, shew us that a new system or index of *this kind* may be established ; the characters of which will at least be more familiar than his, if not also more determinate.' This sentence may truly be called *Vox et præterea nihil*, a mere flow of words, to which we think it impossible to annex an idea. The method of Linnæus, it might be expected, would be assumed for this artificial system ; but its imperfections will not admit of it ; however, the doctor will use his materials to form a newer and more determinate artificial system than this he hath exhibited, which he tells us, a little above, is not founded upon nature ; though, says he, in this place, farther researches into nature, declare that a new system or index of *this kind* may be established. What is this but contradicting in one member of the period what has been asserted in another ; deducing the artificial system from nature, and yet affirming that it hath no dependence on nature. Besides, we imagined that it was a scientific system the doctor had promised in the sequel of this work, and not an amendment of his artificial system. We shall acknowledge the obligation, if he will condescend to clear up these obscurities.

After evincing the utility of such an index as is here given, by stating the difficulties which attend the study of botany, we are presented with a table of the characters and distinctions of classes agreeable to the author's artificial method ; but we cannot render it intelligible without transcribing the whole, and that would exceed our limits. Upon the whole, we could wish the doctor had revised certain passages of this work, that bear marks of haste and inattention ; but possibly he may not yet have converged those ideas which have so long been dissipated upon a thousand various objects. We must likewise observe, that we were considerably disappointed with respect to the design of the author : we flattered ourselves with a complete system of the physiology of plants ; but no such matter, there being only half a dozen pages at the beginning of the performance applied to this purpose.

ART. VII. *Continuation of the Complete History of England.* By T. Smollett, M. D. Vol. I. 8vo. Pr. 5s. Boards. Baldwin.

THE share which the public hath thought proper to assign the author of the *Complete History of England* in our periodical labours, is productive of considerable embarrassment to

to the Reviewers. In treating a performance supposed to be written by a colleague, they are sensible their praises will be wrested into flattery, and their censures regarded as baits to delude the credulous into an opinion of their integrity. Malignity is ever inventive, and dullness may be impelled to active resentment; the insect to which nature hath designed a sting, will buzz and defile with its filthy slime. Opportunity now invites the legion of scribblers, condemned by the sentence of criticism to oblivion, to vent that poison which would burst the heart, in empty hisses; and we expect to behold swarms of those caterpillars preying upon every leaf, until they are reduced to their former torpidity by the chilling blast of contempt. The same gentleman who hath been accused of damning works which he never saw, will now be charged with bestowing that self-applause which he never uttered, and the pretender to sagacity in stile will triumph in having traced the hand of the historian in the approving *critique*. These are mistakes upon which the Reviewers congratulate themselves, notwithstanding they are conscious they flow from ignorance; just as a Flemish painter would rejoice at having his piece set down by a pert connoisseur for the production of the schools of Rome or Bologna.

In writing the history of the present times, Dr. Smollett has encountered difficulties which will vanish before a future historian; but he hath likewise experienced very peculiar advantages. If he has incurred the resentment of individuals and parties, by that manly freedom with which men are characterised, and measures described, he hath also been warmed with that generous flame which can only exist in the breast of the historian who relates present transactions. The pencil of genius drawing from living nature is necessarily animated with a fire unfelt and unknown to the copyist; in which light every succeeding remote historian must be considered. Our author sympathizes with the distress, and exults in the prosperity of his country, with heart-felt emotions that must appear counterfeited, should they be expressed by a writer of the future age. He has watched every turn of fortune, and every change in the complexion of party; he hath seen the effects, and it seldom requires the spirit of divination to penetrate into the causes of disgrace or triumph, though time may possibly reflect some additional light on the secrets of the cabinet, and the motives of faction. This, we apprehend, is the main objection that can be urged against a cotemporary historian; and should it be admitted in its full weight, it is more than balanced by the advantages which we have recited. But that we may not waste the reader's time with our own reflections, we shall proceed to lay
before

before him specimens from our author, which we doubt not will sufficiently justify our encomiums.

Dr. Smollett resumes the subject of his history, with describing the state of the nation, the parties that divided the commonwealth in the year 1748, and the general sentiments which the people entertained of the pacification of Aix-la-Chapelle. The misunderstanding that immediately ensued between the two first personages in the kingdom, furnishes him with an opportunity of employing that admirable talent in drawing characters, which eminently distinguishes the preceding volumes of his history. The principal personages of the prince of Wales's party, who joined the opposition in parliament, are characterised in the following manner :

‘ This band of auxiliaries was headed by the earl of E——t, Dr. Lee, and Mr. N——t. The first possessed a species of eloquence rather plausible than powerful : he spoke with fluency and fire : his spirit was bold and enterprising, his apprehension quick, and his repartee severe. Dr. Lee was a man of extensive erudition and irreproachable morals, particularly versed in the civil law, which he professed, and perfectly well acquainted with the constitution of his country. Mr. N——t was an orator of middling abilities, who harangued upon all subjects indiscriminately, and supplied with confidence what he wanted in capacity : he had been at some pains to study the business of the house, as well as to understand the machine of government ; and was tolerably well heard, as he generally spoke with an appearance of good humour, and hazarded every whimsical idea as it rose in his imagination. But lord Bolingbroke is said to have been the chief spring which, in secret, actuated the deliberations of the prince's court. That nobleman, seemingly sequestered from the tumults of a public life, resided in the neighbourhood of London, at Battersea, where he was visited like a sainted shrine by all the distinguished votaries of wit, eloquence, and political ambition. There he was cultivated and admired for the elegance of his manners, and the charms of his conversation. The prince's curiosity was first captivated by his character, and his esteem was afterwards secured by the irresistible address of that extraordinary personage, who continued in a regular progression to insinuate himself still farther and farther into the good graces of his royal patron. How far the conduct of his royal highness was influenced by the private advice of this nobleman, we shall not pretend to determine : but, certain it is, the friends of the ministry propagated a report, that he was the dictator of those measures which the prince adopted ; and that, under the specious pretext of attachment to the heir-apparent of the crown, he concealed his real

aim, which was to perpetuate the breach in the royal family. Whatever his sentiments and motives might have been, this was no other than a revival of the old ministerial clamour, importing, that a man cannot be well affected to the king, if he pretends to censure any measure of the administration.'

On the ministerial side he ranks Mr. Pitt and Mr. M——, who then executed the office of solicitor-general. The character of the former was before delineated; and we now see the latter painted with that classical strength and elegance, which would be admired in the finest writers of antiquity. 'This gentleman, the son of a noble family in North Britain, had raised himself to great eminence at the bar, by the most keen intuitive spirit of apprehension, that seemed to seize every object at first glance; an innate sagacity that saved the trouble of intense application, and an irresistible stream of eloquence, that flowed pure and classical, strong and copious, reflecting, in the most conspicuous point of view, the subjects over which it rolled, and sweeping before it all the slime of formal hesitation, and all the intangling weeds of chicanery.'

Our author appears to have inclined himself under neither party. He speaks of Mr. Pelham, who at that time directed the helm of government, as a minister of integrity, candour, and public spirit, but educated on erroneous principles, and in some measure forced to prosecute a fatal system, which descended to him by inheritance. His reflections on the parliamentary debates evince his impartiality.

'If we coolly consider those arguments (says our author) which have been bandied about, and retorted with such eagerness and acrimony in the house of commons, and divest them of those passionate tropes and declamatory metaphors which the spirit of opposition alone had produced, we shall find very little left for the subject of dispute, and sometimes be puzzled to discover any material source of disagreement.'

The points which chiefly employed the eloquence of the contending parties, were the conditions of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the reduction of public interest, the supplies to be raised for the services of the year, and certain regulations which the ministry wanted to establish in two bills, relating to the sea and land service, which were violently opposed as infractions on liberty. We shall omit these as topics incapable of historical embellishment, though they are related with the utmost perspicuity, and elucidated by judicious reflections, to quote a passage which, in our opinion, redounds equally to the honour of the author's good sense, and descriptive eloquence. Speaking of the most remarkable natural phenomena of the year

1750, he observes, ' that February was ushered in by terrible peals of thunder, flashes of lightning, and such a tempest of wind, hail, and rain, as overwhelmed with fear and consternation the inhabitants of Bristol, where it chiefly raged.

' On the eighth day of the same month, between the hours of twelve and one in the afternoon, the people of London were still more dreadfully alarmed by the shock of an earthquake, which shook all the houses with such violence, that the furniture rocked on the floors, the pewter and porcelain rattled on the shelves, the chamber-bells rung, and the whole of this commotion was attended with a clap or noise resembling that produced by the fall of a heavy bureau. The shock extended through the cities of London and Westminster, and was felt on both sides of the river Thames, from Greenwich to the westward of London; but not perceptible at any considerable distance.

' On the very same day of the next month, between five and six o'clock in the morning, the inhabitants of the metropolis were again affrighted by a second shock more violent than the first, and abundantly more alarming, as it waked the greater part of the people from their repose. It was preceded by a succession of thick low flashes of lightning, and a rumbling noise, like that of a heavy carriage rolling over a hollow pavement. The shock itself consisted of repeated vibrations, which lasted some seconds, and violently shook every house from top to bottom. Again the chairs rocked, the shelves clattered, the small bells rung, and in some places public clocks were heard to strike. Many persons, roused by this terrible visitation, started naked from their beds; and ran to their doors and windows in distraction; yet no life was lost, and no house overthrown by this concussion, though it was so dreadful as to threaten an immediate dissolution of the globe. The circumstance, however, did not fail to make a deep impression upon ignorant, weak, and superstitious minds, which were the more affected by the consideration that the two shocks were periodical; that the second, which happened exactly one month after the first, had been the more violent; and that the next increasing in proportion, might be attended with the most dismal consequences. This general notion was confirmed, and indeed propagated among all ranks of people, by the admonitions of a fanatic soldier, who publicly preached up repentance, and boldly prophesied that the next shock would happen on the same day of April, and totally destroy the cities of London and Westminster. Considering the infectious nature of fear and superstition, and the emphatic manner in which the imagination had been prepared and prepossessed, it is no wonder that the

effusions of this illiterate enthusiast should have contributed in a great measure to augment the general terror. The churches were crowded with penitent sinners: the sons of riot and profligacy were overawed into sobriety and decorum. The streets no longer resounded with execrations, or the noise of brutal licentiousness; and the hand of charity was liberally opened. Those whom fortune had enabled to retire from the devoted city, fled to the country with hurry and precipitation, in so much that the highways were encumbered with horses and carriages. Many who had, in the beginning, combated these groundless fears with the weapons of reason and ridicule, began insensibly to imbibe the contagion, and felt their hearts fail, in proportion as the hour of probation approached: even science and philosophy were not proof against the unaccountable effects of this communication. In after ages it will hardly be believed, that on the evening of the eighth day of April the open fields, that skirt the metropolis, were filled with an incredible number of people, assembled in chairs, in chaises, and coaches, as well as on foot, who waited in the most fearful suspense, until morning and the return of day disproved the truth of the dreaded prophecy. Then their fears vanished: they returned to their respective habitations in a transport of joy: they were soon reconciled to their abandoned vices, which they seemed to resume with redoubled affection, and once more bad defiance to the vengeance of heaven.'

Every Briton must see with pleasure the virtues of their young monarch delineated in the character of his royal father.

'In the midst of these deliberations the kingdom was alarmed with an event which overwhelmed the people with grief and consternation. His royal highness the prince of Wales, in consequence of a cold caught in his garden at Kew, was seized with a pleuretic disorder; and, after a short illness, expired on the twentieth day of March, to the unspeakable affliction of his royal consort, and the unfeigned sorrow of all who wished well to their country. This excellent prince, who now died in the forty-fifth year of his age, was possessed of every amiable quality which could engage the affection of the people: a tender and obliging husband, a fond parent, a kind master, liberal, generous, candid, and humane; a munificent patron of the arts, an unwearied friend to merit; well disposed to assert the rights of mankind in general, and warmly attached to the interest of Great Britain. The nation could not but be afflicted at seeing a prince of such expectations ravished from their hopes; and their grief was the better founded, as the king had already attained to an advanced age, and the heir-apparent George, now prince of Wales, was a minor.'

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The reader will observe, that this part of the history was written previous to the accession of his present majesty.

The ensuing sketch of national morals in the year 1751, is extremely picturesque and animated.

‘ The interior œconomy of Great-Britain produced, within the circle of this year, nothing else worthy of historical regard, except a series of enormous crimes, arising from the profligacy of individuals, which reflected disgrace upon the morals and the polity of the nation. Rapine and robbery had domineered without intermission ever since the return of peace, which was attended with a reduction of the army and navy: but now crimes of a deeper dye seemed to lift up their heads, in contempt of law and humanity. An indulgent parent was poisoned by his only daughter, on whom, besides other marks of tenderness and paternal affection, he had bestowed a liberal education, which greatly aggravated her guilt and ingratitude. Another young woman was concerned in the assassination of her own uncle, who had been her constant benefactor and sole guardian. A poor old woman, having, from the ignorance and superstition of her neighbours, incurred the suspicion of sorcery and witchcraft: was murdered in Hertfordshire by the populace, with all the wantonness of barbarity. Rape and murder were perpetrated upon an unfortunate woman in the neighbourhood of London, and an innocent man suffered death for this complicated outrage, while the real criminals assisted at his execution, heard him appeal to heaven for his innocence, and, in the character of friends, embraced him, while he stood on the brink of eternity. Every day almost produced fresh instances of perjury, forgery, fraud, and circumvention; and the kingdom exhibited a most amazing jumble of virtue and vice, honour and infamy, compassion and obduracy, sentiment and brutality.’

With these and other spirited strokes hath our author enlivened a narrative of domestic occurrences, where all the powers of imagination were required to keep the attention awake.

The doctor hath so artfully interwoven his reflections with the texture of his narrative, that it is difficult to exhibit fair specimens of his talents in this disputed branch of an historian’s province. Having recited the principal arguments alledged for and against the bill brought into parliament, for the naturalization of persons professing the Jewish religion, the doctor adds: ‘ The truth is, the naturalization might have entreated the wealth, and extended the commerce of Great Britain, had it been agreeable to the people; and as the naturalized Jews would still have been excluded from all civil and military offices,

as well as from other privileges enjoyed by their Christian brethren, in all probability, they would have gradually forsaken their own unprofitable and obstinate infidelity, opened their eyes to the shining truths of the gospel, and joined their fellow-subjects in embracing the doctrines of Christianity. But no ministry ought to risk an experiment, how plausible soever it may be, if they find it, as this was, an object of the people's unconquerable aversion. What rendered this unpopular measure the more impolitic, was the unseasonable juncture at which it was carried into execution ; that is, at the eve of a general election for a new parliament ; when a minister ought carefully to avoid every step which may give umbrage to the body of the people. The earl of Eg—t, who argued against the bill with equal power and vivacity, in describing the effect it might have upon that occasion, “ I am amazed, (said he) that this consideration makes no impression.—When that day, which is not far off, shall arrive, I shall not fear to set my foot upon any ground of election in the kingdom, in opposition to any one man among you, or any new Christian who has voted or appeared in favour of this naturalization.”

As the doctor's account of the law to prevent the solemnization of clandestine marriages, commonly known by the name of the *Marriage Act*, is exceedingly spirited, and masterly, we shall beg leave to quote a few passages, to convey an explicit idea to our readers of the reasons upon which it was founded. ‘ The practice of solemnizing clandestine marriages, so prejudicial to the peace of families, and so often productive of misery to the parties themselves thus united, was an evil, our author observes, that prevailed to such a degree, as claimed the attention of the legislature. The sons and daughters of great and opulent families, before they had acquired knowledge and experience, or attained to the years of discretion, were every day seduced in their affections, and inveigled into matches big with infamy and ruin ; and these were greatly facilitated by the opportunities that occurred of being united instantaneously by the ceremony of marriage, in the first transport of passion, before the destined victim had time to cool or deliberate on the subject. For this pernicious purpose there was a band of profligate miscreants, the refuse of the clergy, dead to every sentiment of virtue, abandoned to all sense of decency and decorum, for the most part prisoners for debt or delinquency, and indeed the very outcasts of human society, who hovered about the verge of the Fleet-prison to intercept customers, plying like porters for employment, and performed the ceremony of marriage without licence or question, in cellars, garrets, or alehouses, to the scandal of religion, and the disgrace of that order which they pro-

professed. The ease with which this ecclesiastical sanction was obtained, and the vicious disposition of those wretches, open to the practices of fraud and corruption, were productive of polygamy, indigence, conjugal infidelity, prostitution, and every curse that could imbitter the married state.

‘ A remarkable case of this nature having fallen under the cognizance of the peers, in an appeal from an inferior tribunal, that house ordered the judges to prepare a new bill for preventing such abuses; and one was accordingly framed, under the auspices of lord H——, at that time lord high chancellor of England.’

After relating the particulars of the bill, he thus proceeds to enumerate the arguments urged by the opponents to the ministry. ‘ The principal objections imported, that such restrictions on marriage would damp the spirit of love and propagation; promote mercenary matches, to the ruin of domestic happiness, as well as to the prejudice of posterity and population; impede the circulation of property, by preserving the wealth of the kingdom among a kind of aristocracy of opulent families, who would always intermarry within their own pale; subject the poor to many inconveniences, and extraordinary expence, from the nature of the forms to be observed; and throw an additional power into the hands of the chancellor. They affirmed, that no human power had a right to dissolve a vow solemnly made in the sight of heaven: and that, in proportion as the bill prevented clandestine marriages, it would encourage fornication and debauchery, inasmuch as the parties restrained from indulging their mutual passions in an honourable manner, would be tempted to gratify them by stealth, at the hazard of their reputation. In a word, they foresaw a great number of evils in the train of this bill, which have not yet been realized. On the other side, its advocates endeavoured to refute these arguments, and some of them spoke with great strength and precision. The bill underwent a great number of alterations and amendments, which were not effected without violent contest and altercation. At length, however, it was floated through both houses on the tide of a great majority, and steered into the safe harbour of royal approbation.

‘ Certain it is, the abuse of clandestine marriage might have been removed upon much easier terms than those imposed upon the subject by this bill, which, after all, hath been found ineffectual, as it may be easily eluded by a short voyage to the continent, or a moderate journey to North Britain, where the indissoluble knot may be tied without scruple or interruption.’

With respect to the origin of the present war, and the disputes between France and England, relating to the boundaries of Acadia, no writer upon that subject hath exhibited so clear and satisfactory a detail as our author, who, we imagine, hath been furnished with some extraordinary materials, till now unpublished. The narrative exhibited of our first disgraces in North America, the factious discordant state of the colonies, the first naval hostilities, the kind of irregular war carried on previous to a declaration, the mutual recriminations of the parties, the first design of forming alliances on the continent, and all the arts which the court of Berlin practised to entangle us in fatal treaties, which have since cost Great Britain so many millions of treasure, besides the slaughter of thousands of her children, is equally spirited and impartial.

Doctor Smollett will excuse us should we observe, that from his account of Byng's conduct in the engagement off Minorca, we think that admiral justly merited the punishment which his country loudly demanded, though the doctor regards him as a scape-goat.

At day-light the enemy could not be descried; but two tartanes appearing close to the rear of the English squadron, they were immediately chased by signal. One escaped; and the other being taken, was found to have on board two French captains, two lieutenants, and about one hundred private soldiers, part of six hundred who had been sent out in tartanes the preceding day, to reinforce the enemy's squadron. This soon re-appearing, the line of battle was formed on each side; and about two o'clock admiral Byng threw out a signal to bear away two points from the wind, and engage. At this time his distance from the enemy was so great, that rear-admiral West perceiving it impossible to comply with both orders, bore away with his division seven points from the wind, and, closing down upon the enemy, attacked them with such impetuosity, that the ships which opposed him were in a little time driven out of the line. Had he been properly sustained by the van, in all probability the British fleet would have obtained a complete victory: but the other division did not bear down, and the enemy's centre keeping their station, rear-admiral West could not pursue his advantage without running the risque of seeing his communication with the rest of the line intirely cut off.

In the beginning of the action the Intrepid, in Mr. Byng's division, was so disabled in her rigging, that she could not be managed, and drove on the ship that was next in position: a circumstance which obliged several others to throw all a-back, in order to avoid confusion, and for some time retarded the action. Certain it is, that Mr. Byng, though accommodated with
a noble

a noble ship of ninety guns, made little or no use of his artillery ; but kept aloof, either from an overstrained observance of discipline, or timidity. When his captain exhorted him to bear down upon the enemy, he very coolly replied, that he would avoid the error of admiral Matthews, who, in his engagement with the French and Spanish squadrons off Toulon, during the preceding war, had broke the line by his own precipitation, and exposed himself singly to a fire that he could not sustain. Mr. Byng, on the contrary, was determined against acting, except with the line intire ; and, on pretence of rectifying the disorder which had happened among some of the ships, hesitated so long, and kept at such a wary distance, that he was never properly engaged, though he received some few shots in his hull. Mr. de la Galissoniere seemed equally averse to the continuance of the battle : part of his squadron had been fairly obliged to quit the line ; and tho' he was rather superior to the English in number of men and weight of metal, he did not chuse to abide the consequence of a closer fight with an enemy so expert in naval operations : he therefore took advantage of Mr. Byng's hesitation, and edged away with an easy sail to join his van, which had been discomfited. The English admiral gave chase ; but the French ships being clean, he could not come up and close them again, so they retired at their leisure. Then he put his squadron on the other tack, in order to keep the wind of the enemy ; and next morning they were altogether out of sight.'

A little after the historian relates : ' Mr. Byng's letter to the admiralty, containing a detail of this action, is said to have arrived some days before it was made public ; and when it appeared was curtailed of divers expressions and whole paragraphs, which either tended to his own justification, or implied a censure on the conduct of his superiors. Whatever use might have been made of this letter while it remained a secret to the public, we shall not pretend to explain : but sure it is, that on the sixteenth day of June, Sir Edward Hawke and admiral Saunders sailed from Spithead to Gibraltar, to supersede the admirals Byng and West, in their commands of the Mediterranean squadron ; and Mr. Byng's letter was not published till the twenty-sixth day of the same month, when it produced all the effect which that gentleman's bitterest enemies could have desired. The populace took fire like a train of the most hasty combustibles, and broke out in such a clamour of rage and indignation against the devoted admiral, as could not have been exceeded, if he had lost the whole navy of England, and left the coasts of the kingdom naked to invasion. This animosity
was

was carefully fomented and maintained by artful emissaries, who mingled with all public assemblies, from the drawing-room at St. James's to the mob at Charing-cross. They expatiated upon the insolence, the folly, the cowardice, and misconduct of the unhappy admiral. They even presumed to make their sovereign in some measure an instrument of their calumny, by suggesting that his majesty had prognosticated Byng's misbehaviour from the contents of his first letter dated at Gibraltar. They ridiculed and refuted the reasons he had given for returning to that fortress, after his scandalous rencounter with the French squadron; and, in order to exasperate them to the most implacable resentment, they exaggerated the terrible consequences of losing Minorca, which must now be subdued through his treachery, or want of resolution. In a word, he was devoted as the scape-goat of the m——y, to whose supine negligence, ignorance, and misconduct, the loss of that important fortress was undoubtedly owing. Byng's miscarriage was thrown out like a barrel to the whale, in order to engage the attention of the people, that it might not be attracted by the real cause of the national misfortune. In order to keep up the flame which had been kindled against the admiral, recourse was had to the lowest artifices. Agents were employed to vilify his person in all public places of vulgar resort; and mobs were hired at different parts of the capital to hang and burn him in effigy.'

We must confess we think the ministry less guilty upon this occasion than they are generally reputed. The garrison in Minorca appears, from the defence they made, to have been sufficient for the preservation of the island, had the admiral discharged his duty; and the administration had the utmost reason to be incensed against an officer, whose misconduct drew upon their measures such a load of calumny and popular clamour. Self-defence required they should divert the torrent; and if we should admit they were not altogether guiltless, yet this by no means extenuates the crime of Byng, who is demonstrated, by experiment, to have had a force adequate to all the purposes of the expedition. Our author himself acknowledges, that had admiral West's division been supported by the van, a complete victory must have ensued; in consequence of which the siege would not only have been raised, but the besiegers reduced to the utmost necessity of surrendering prisoners at discretion, for want of subsistence. It is possible the ministry might have other motives than national honour in the persecution of this unfortunate gentleman; but, according to the historian's relation, we cannot think but his fate was merited. The following

ing reflection, however, upon his trial and execution, breathes the true spirit of candour, good sense, and public spirit.

‘Notwithstanding all that has been said in his favour: notwithstanding the infamous arts that were practised to keep up the cry against him; notwithstanding this solemn appeal to heaven in his last moments, and even self-conviction of innocence, the character of admiral Byng, in point of personal courage, will still with many people remain problematical. They will still be of opinion, that if the spirit of a British admiral had been properly exerted, the French fleet would have been defeated, and Minorca relieved. A man’s opinion of danger varies at different times, in consequence of an irregular tide of animal spirits, and he is actuated by considerations which he dares not avow.

‘After an officer, thus influenced, has hesitated or kept aloof in the hour of trial, the mind, eager for its own justification, assembles, with surprising industry, every favourable circumstance of excuse, and broods over them with parental partiality, until it becomes not only satisfied, but even enamoured of their beauty and complexion; like a doating mother, blind to the deformity of her own offspring. Whatever Mr. Byng’s internal feelings might have been; whatever consequences might have attended his behaviour on that occasion; as the tribunal before which he was tried acquitted him expressly of cowardice and treachery, he was, without all doubt, a proper object for royal clemency, and so impartial posterity will judge him, after all those dishonourable motives of faction and of fear, by which his fate was influenced, shall be lost in oblivion, or remembered with disdain. The people of Great Britain, naturally fierce, impatient, and clamorous, have been too much indulged, upon every petty miscarriage, with trials, courts-martial, and dismissions, which tend only to render their military commanders rash and precipitate, the populace more licentious and intractable, and to disgrace the national character in the opinion of mankind.’

We shall conclude this article with remarking, that almost all the arguments advanced in a late pamphlet against our continental connections, and, particularly, the alliance with his Prussian majesty, may be found dispersed in this volume, which was published in detached numbers long before the appearance of that performance.

[The Subject will be resumed in our next Number.]

ART:

ART. VIII. *Medea. A Tragedy. 4to. Pr. 2s. 6d. Morgan.*

MR. Glover's poetical reputation is so well established by his *Leonidas*, a work, which notwithstanding hath never met with that admiration it deserves, that the public, before the publication of the *Medea*, were prepared to expect every thing that a fine imagination, excellent judgment, and sublime genius could produce; and in this we have the pleasure to assure them they will not be disappointed. The *Medea* is a piece of great intrinsic merit, abounding in fine sentiments, and elegant diction, adorned with true classical purity, and carried on throughout with equal spirit and vigour; though at the same time, to those who are unacquainted with the ancient theatre, it will appear greatly deficient in many of those points which constitute the fancied merit of modern tragedy. The plot is extremely simple; the incidents few, but interesting, and well-conducted; the characters well marked and supported.

The story of *Medea* is so well known to readers of any taste or learning, (and to such only this tragedy will give pleasure) that it would be needless to repeat it. We shall therefore proceed to an account of the manner in which it is treated by Mr. Glover, who has taken the liberty to vary from Euripides and Seneca, in his plan, to avoid many errors and absurdities which they were guilty of, and to introduce many beauties which are not to be met with in those writers. The dramatis personæ are, Jason, Æson, his father; Creon, tyrant of Corinth; Medea; Theano, priestess of Juno; Lycander, her brother; and Hecate, an infernal goddess; with Colchians, Phæacians, Thesfalians, and Corinthians. The scene is the citadel of Corinth, between a grove sacred to Juno, and the royal palace, with a distant prospect of the sea.

Act I. opens with a short scene between Lycander and his sister Theano, who, agreeable to her character of a priestess, informs him that she had seen in a vision some strangers, who would soon land on that coast, and whom Juno had enjoined her to protect. Whilst they are talking, some Colchians enter, who inform her that they are attendants on Medea, who is just arrived from Iolcos. Theano grants them her protection, and they retire, when Creon enters, and expresses his indignation against Medea, forbidding the priestess to favour or protect her. The tyrant talks profanely and impiously, and Theano rebukes him with a dignity suitable to her function. Creon then is enraged with Lycander for not giving him notice of Medea's arrival. To them enters Æson, Jason's father, who comes to intreat Creon's aid against the Thracians, who had driven him

out of his kingdom. Creon grants him his request. They then converse together concerning Jason, and Creon sends Lycander with strict orders to prevent a meeting between Jason and Medea. Creon and Æson retiring, Medea, with her two children enters, accompanied by Colchians and Phæacians. She rages and complains of the inconstancy of Jason, who had left her, and was just on the point of being married to Creusa, the daughter of Creon. The chorus, after the manner of the ancients, endeavour to comfort her by music and songs, which conclude the act.

Act II. opens with a scene between Jason and Theano, who informs him of the arrival of Medea, and points her out to him walking in a grove at some distance from them. At sight of her, he repents his resolution to marry Creusa, and resolves, if possible, to be reconciled to Medea. To them enters Lycander, who acquaints Jason that his father Æson is in Corinth; and as they are conversing, Æson arrives. The father advises his son to marry Creusa; the son thinks of nothing but Medea, who now herself approaches and joins them. Here follows a tender and pathetic scene between the two lovers: Jason intreats her to forgive his infidelity, and promises constancy for the future; but Medea spurns him from her with indignation, and leaves him. Æson then endeavours to persuade Jason to forget and despise her. They go out together to Creon. The Colchians and Phæacians, who compose the chorus, finish the act, as before, with a song.

Act III. begins with a conversation between Theano and a Colchian, concerning Medea and her children, who soon enter. Medea delivers up her children to the protection of Theano. Creon comes to them, and, apprehensive as he had reason to be, that the presence of Medea might put a stop to his daughter's marriage with Jason, he commands her immediately to quit Corinth. The scene between them is warm and spirited. Medea at last thinks it prudent to dissemble, and petitions Creon to grant her only three hours stay longer at Corinth, which we shall find she had resolved to make the best use of; for immediately on Creon's concession and departure, she proceeds to her incantations, calls up Hecate from the shades, and interrogates her concerning her future fate, which the infernal goddess reveals, though in obscure terms, only informing her that what she loves shall perish by her rage. This is intirely in character, and withal leaves the spectator in doubt with regard to Medea's future conduct. The sorceress, overcome at length with rage and despair, falls on the ground; but being raised by her followers, is conducted to a sequestered grove. The chorus end the act, as in the two first, with a song.

Act IV. Medea having sent a Colchian to fetch Jason to her, the act opens with a short scene between them; after which Medea's children come in, and endeavour to persuade their father to return to her. He consents, but unwillingly. Jason and Medea being once more met together, Medea, who before had behaved with so much pride, becomes meek and humble, kneels to Jason, and implores his pity and his love. Jason is moved at her behaviour, but acquaints her that it is now too late, for Creusa is his wife. Medea, immediately on hearing this dreadful news, loses her senses; Lycander arrives with a message from the tyrant to send her away, and is soon followed by Creon himself, who is alarmed at finding Jason with her. Some altercation ensues between him and Jason, and they part extremely incensed at each other. Medea being retired to the temple, Jason and Lycander converse together, and propose leaving Corinth. The act ends with a song of the chorus.

Act V. opens with a scene between the Colchians and Theano, who coming from the temple, informs them that Medea, in her madness, had killed her children. Jason and Theano then repair to the palace of Creon. Medea enters; her madness and sorrow for the loss of her children are finely painted. In the height of her phrenzy she faints, and sinks into the lap of a Phæacian, but soon after recovers her reason, and enquires most tenderly after her children; then, conscious of her crime, falls again into despair. Jason comes in to her, is shocked at the news of his children's death, who he at first imagines were slain by Creon, but is informed by Medea that it was her own act. She draws a poniard, and attempts to destroy herself, but is with-held by a voice from the temple crying out,

‘ Hold, offspring of the sun, arise, repair
To Juno's shrine.’

She obeys, and retires to the temple. Lycander enters to Jason, and acquaints him that every thing is ready for their departure, but that the women of Corinth were rushing to the palace with lighted torches, and demoniac fury, which, in all probability, would be fatal to Creon. The stage is darkened, and thunder and lightning ensue; after which Theano enters, as flying to the temple; the Corinthians enter, after having slain Creon. The priestess then advances, and says,

‘ Ye sons of Corinth,
Old men of Colchis and Theſſalians, hear.
At length the gods restrain their vengeful rod.
The dreadful scene is clos'd. Iolchian prince,

Thou

Thou from Æetes' daughter art disjoin'd.
Look, where the goddess through th' aerial champaign
Sends in a chariot drawn by winged dragons
That all-transcending woman into climes
Remote, but whither is from thee concealed.

Upon which Jason offers to fall upon his sword, but is prevented by the priestess, who exhorts him to patience, and tells him, he has a father's kingdom to redeem, and desires him to take care of the followers of the unfortunate Medea, and to restore them safe to their homes. With this speech the tragedy ends.

Our readers, by the little sketch we have here given, will be able to form some idea of the external form of this beautiful structure. We shall now present them with an imperfect view of some of the interior beauties of it, by pointing out a few of the most striking passages in this excellent drama.

In the very first scene, we have a convincing proof of the author's perfect knowledge of character, when, to prepare the audience for the arrival of Medea, the priestess says,

' Imperial Juno in an awful vision
This morn presented to my wondring sight
The shapes of strangers by distress pursu'd;
Whom to the refuge of this holy place
I must receive obedient to her charge.'

Æson's description of Medea is noble:

' Too well distinguish'd by her stately port,
And elevation o'er that weeping train,
She tow'rs, a genuine offspring of the gods;
Rage in her brow, and anguish in her eye,
Denounce the growing tempest in her mind.'

Medea's passionate exclamation against her faithless lover, is highly agreeable to her character, and drawn from nature.

' Oh! I gave him all;
To him my virgin bosom I resign'd,
For him the regal mansion of my father,
The lov'd companions of my youth deserted;
From foul defeat, from shame, from death I saved him:
What more could woman?—Yet he weds another.
Me he abandons, and these helpless infants
Forlorn, unshelter'd in a foreign clime,
To ev'ry outrage, ev'ry want expos'd.

Blast

Blast his perfidious head, vindictive lightnings!
 Unhappy woman! canst thou, in the height
 Of thy despair, thy rage and indignation,
 Canst thou pursue him with a heavier curse,
 Than to be plung'd in woes, which equal thine?"

The beginning of the first chorus is inimitably beautiful, and entirely in the taste and spirit of antiquity.

A P H Æ A C I A N.

"O Music, sweet artificer of pleasure,
 Why is thy science exercis'd alone
 In festivals, on hymeneal days;
 And in the full assemblies of the happy?
 Ah! how much rather should we court thy skill
 In sorrow's gloomy season, to diffuse
 Thy smooth allurements through the languid ear
 Of self-devour'd affliction, and delude
 The wretched from their sadness.

A C O L C H I A N.

"Let us melt
 In tuneful accents flowing to our woes,
 That so Medea may at least reflect,
 She is not singly wretched. Let her hear
 Our elegies, whose measur'd moan records
 Our friends forsaken, and our country lost;
 That she no longer to her sole distress,
 Her deep-revolving spirit may confine,
 But by our sorrows may relieve her own."

At the beginning of the second act, when Jason hears Medea's voice at a distance, he calls it a vocal prodigy, not imagining that she could really be so near, when Theano informs him it is Medea herself. This is prettily imagined by the poet, and would have a fine effect in the representation. Medea's curse is remarkably spirited and poetical, when she says to Jason,

"Curs'd be the skill which fram'd your fatal bark!
 Accurs'd the gale which fill'd her spreading canvass;
 But doubly curs'd the hour, the hour of ruin,
 When first I view'd that smiling treach'rous form,
 And fondly trusted to the fair delusion.
 O that amid the terrors of enchantment,
 When for thy sake profoundest hell was open'd,
 Some fiend had whirl'd me to the desert pole;
 Or that the earth dividing with my charms,
 Low, as her central cavern, had entomb'd me."

The following verses convey to us a just and sensible reflection in the most elegant diction :

‘ Ah ! reflect,
That keenest sorrow, poverty, or pain
Are light and gentle to the bitter darts
Thrice steeped in gall, which Nemesis directs
Against his bosom, who by merit pass’d
Once drew th’ enchanting melody of praise,
Then forfeiting the sweet report of fame
O’er his irrevocable loss repines.’

If we could object against any thing in these verses, it would be the expression ‘ *by merit pass’d*,’ which we think is not altogether so clear and intelligible as it might have been. Medea’s invocation of Hecate has in it so much of the true tragic terror, that we cannot help laying it before our readers.

‘ Thou, by whose pow’r the magic song [IAMBICS]
Charms from its orb th’ unwilling moon,
Controls the rapid planet’s speed,
And dims the constellation’s fires ;

While sounding torrents stop and sleep,
While fountain-nymphs in dread withhold
Their mazy tribute from the meads,
And stiff’ning serpents hear and die :

Terrific deity, whose name,
And altar stain’d with human blood
On Tauric cliffs the Scythian wild,
And fell Sarmatian tribes adore ;

[TROCHAICS.]

Wreath’d in snakes, and twining boughs
Gather’d from infernal oaks,
Which o’er Pluto’s portal hung
Shed a second night on hell ;

In thy raven-tinctur’d stole,
Grasping thy tremendous brand,
With thy howling train around,
Awful Hecaté, ascend.

FIRST COLCHIAN.

By the pitchy streams of Styx,
Lethe’s mute and lazy flood,
By the deathful vapor sent
From Avernus’ steaming pool ;

By th’ eternal sigh, which heaves
With Cocytus’ mournful wave,
By the Phlegethontic blaze,
Direful goddesses hear and rise.

Or if, where discord late hath heap'd [IAMBICS.]
 Her bloody hecatombs to Mars,
 Thou sweeping o'er the mangled slain
 Dost tinge thy feet in sanguine dew;
 Ah! leave a-while the vulture's shriek,
 The raven croaking o'er the dead,
 The midnight wolf's insatiate howl,
 And hither turn thy solemn pace.
 The winds in magic horror bound
 Shall at thy presence cease to breathe,
 No thunder-teeming cloud approach,
 The hoarse and restless surge be dumb.'

It is observable, that in the chorusses our author has religiously adhered to the practice of antiquity, even so far as to adopt the Greek measures, cretics, trochaics, &c. Whether this may be agreeable to an English ear, we cannot pretend to determine: we must own, with regard to ourselves, we would rather have seen the chorusses in odes, as they are in *Mason's Elfrida* and *Caractacus*, and *Francklin's translation of Sophocles*. Mr. Glover is such a master of numbers, that he would have made them to the last degree elegant and poetical. The reader will judge whether the following are so or not.

• Native groves hoar with frost, [CRETICS.]
 Caverns deep fill'd with night,
 Shagged cliffs, horror's seat;

[TROCHAICS.]
 Oh! to these desiring eyes
 Lovely is your gloom, which lives
 In remembrance ever dear.
 You are brighter than my thoughts,
 Which despondency o'erclouds,
 And in these perfidious climes
 Expectation cheats no more.

A P H Œ A C I A N.

Torrents swell, tempests rage, [CRETICS.]
 Danger frowns, pain devours,
 Grief consumes, man betrays;

[TROCHAICS.]
 Such our doom in ev'ry clime:
 Yet among the thorns of life
 Hope attends to scatter flow'rs;
 And Credulity, her child,
 Still with kind imposture smooths
 Heaving trouble, and imparts
 Moments, which suspend despair.'

The

The images of hope and credulity, as described above, are extremely beautiful.

Some * half-learned mongrel critics have lately taken it into their heads to bark loudly against the antient tragedy, which they don't understand, and been remarkably facetious on the chorus; but whilst the taste for antiquity is productive of such works as *Medea*, those who have any regard to their own pleasure will be careful how they condemn it.

When *Medea* hears from *Jason* that he is married to *Creusa*, she immediately grows frantic, a situation very difficult for a writer to manage well: but Mr. Glover's conduct is excellent and natural. Every thing that had passed between *Medea* and *Jason* recurs to her distempered imagination; she sees the ship he first arrived in:

' What wonderful appearance
Floats on the main, and stems the lofty surge!

What art thou, most presumptuous,
Who dar'st approach the limits of this region?
Hast thou not heard that bulls with brazen feet,
And sleepless dragons guard the fatal soil!
He hears untterrify'd — I ne'er beheld
Such majesty and grace.

He speaks; what music!

He claims the golden fleece: what means this warmth
Which prompts my hand to give the radiant prize?
But wilt thou prove then constant — ever kind?
I must, I will believe thee.'

The rest of the scene is equal to this. In Euripides and Seneca, *Medea* sends a poisoned garment as a present to *Jason's* wife, who dies in torments; a circumstance judiciously omitted by Mr. Glover, who confines all the horror of this catastrophe to a much more interesting circumstance, the murder of her children. Her forgetting that she had slain them, when she recovers from her delirium, is finely imagined, when she says,

' Sure, my faithful friends,
From my sad heart no evils can erase
Maternal gladness at my children's sight.
Go, lead them from the temple — They will smile,
And lift my thoughts to momentary joy,
Not gone, my virgins? Wherefore this delay?
Why all aghast? Why tremble thus your limbs?

* See an epistle, by one Lloyd, and several other squibs of the same nature, which have been lately published.

Ha! whence this blood? My hands are dipt in slaughter.
 Speak, ye dumb oracles of terror, speak;
 Where are my children? My distracted brain
 A thousand dreadful images recalls
 Imperfectly remember'd——Speak, I charge you;
 Where are my children?

The part of Medea is indeed finely supported throughout, extremely well calculated for action, and would have shewn the tragic powers of the inimitable † Constance to the greatest advantage. We cannot therefore help regretting that Mr. Glover did not adapt this piece to the stage, which he might easily have done, by retrenching some superfluous ornaments, and adding a few lines to it; as we should then have seen what we have long wanted, a fine tragedy.

As it is, we must be contented to admire it in our closets, and to acknowledge that it is, upon the whole, one of the most striking performances we have seen for a long time. We will venture to add, that this play is so much in the true spirit of antiquity, that if it had been written in Greek, and handed down to us as the composition of Sophocles or Euripides, it would have been admired as the capital performance of either of those noble authors.

ART. IX. *A Letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of B——, on a late important Resignation, and its probable Consequences, 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Coote.*

AS this letter appears to be the production of genius, we are sorry to see the author enlisted under the banners of party, and invidiously wresting the conduct of an honourable gentleman, whose spirit and activity are universally allowed to have infused new life and vigour into the languid measures of the administration, and gained the confidence of the people, at a period when it became doubtful whether any remains of patriot virtue, or of the antient valour of Britain, existed in the nation. Though we cannot pretend to vindicate a m——r, who, in full possession of the esteem of his sovereign and fellow-subjects, deserted the helm of state, at a juncture the most critical to his own, and to national glory; yet we would willingly suspend our judgment, until we are better informed of the motives of his resignation, and persuade ourselves that Mr. P. would not wantonly forfeit, by one precipitate step, all the honour which he hath been so long and so diligently accumulating. For this reason we must regard, as the effusions of

† Mrs. Cibber.

party-

party-zeal, those sluices of abuse which have opened on all sides, that, like a torrent, have deluged the public, and suddenly dissipated that dream of popularity, reared possibly upon as capricious a foundation as the present cloud of calumny. Malice itself hath as yet been unable to impeach his integrity, and where that cardinal virtue resides in the breast of a minister, united with consummate ability, justice demands that we should not hastily condemn a measure which we cannot explain. He hath declared, in a public manner, that a difference of opinion on a point of the most important consequence to the honour of the king and kingdom, occasioned his abandoning an office, which rendered him answerable for measures he was not suffered to direct. This confession hath been taxed with presumption, as if he was desirous of assuming to himself the prerogatives both of the sovereign and council; but we view it in a light altogether different. Would not the storm of popular fury be pointed against Mr. P. rather than against the council, had disgrace ensued from the measures proposed? Is a minister to be accused of arrogance, for resigning his office, after he has been over-ruled in a point on which depended his own honour and safety? Or is he to be impeached as corrupt, for accepting the inadequate reward of eminent services? Is it to be supposed that he will desert the interest of his country, and renounce his former principles, because he experiences the gratitude and bounty of his sovereign? No! we rather flatter ourselves that Mr. P. will redouble his efforts to evince that his whole conduct has been what every one expected—spirited, disinterested, and consistent.

The propositions which our writer undertakes to prove are,

First, 'That a solid, honourable, and advantageous peace, in the present circumstances of Great-Britain, exhausted as her people, and multiplying as her debts are, is preferable to the most splendid successes of war.

Secondly, 'That such a peace would give Great-Britain an opportunity, with honour and credit for the future, to decline all continental connections, attended with such a profusion of blood and treasure, as those she is now engaged in.

Thirdly, 'That this system can receive no manner of shock by the resignation of the right honourable gentleman who a few days ago gave up the seals of his office.

Fourthly, 'That the same right honourable gentleman and his friends, whose patriotism and disinterested attachment to their country cannot be questioned, will and must, in consistence with that character, co-operate in the same good work, whe-

ther he or they are in place, or out of place, as they cannot be suspected of distressing his majesty's measures, even supposing those measures not to be their own.'

In the proof of the first of these propositions, our author makes several excursions foreign to the argument, in order to persuade mankind, that the conquests which have rendered so illustrious the administration of Mr. P. were the necessary consequences of the measures formed by the preceding ministry; a point which we apprehend he hath toiled to elevate to the summit of malignity, only to tumble down, like the labours of Sisyphus, to the profundity of contempt. What can be more ridiculous than to assert, contrary to the testimony and knowledge of a whole nation, that the reduction of Louisbourg, of Guadaloupe, of Quebec, Montreal, of Goree, the settlements in the river Senegal, and all the advantages obtained on the coast of Africa, the continent of America, and the West-Indies, ought to be ascribed to the foresight of those gentlemen who directed the helm of government when Braddock was defeated; when an expedition against Cape Breton miscarried; when Minorca was lost; when an admiral was shot for not executing impossibilities, and a general ennobled for resting his leg quietly in a great chair during a paroxysm of the gout; when another general was broke for not comprehending orders which were not intelligible; when terror and dismay had overspread the kingdom; when hirelings were introduced to protect Great-Britain from a foreign invasion. Verisimilitude and reason oppose the bare-faced insinuation, and destroy the effects of artful, factious malignity.

The author then recurs to his argument, after having discharged a few sarcasms at the immense supplies raised and expended in impotent attacks on the coast of France, and the extension of our connexions with the continent.

'What is, says he, a solid, honourable, and advantageous peace? To solve this question, my lord, I must have a retrospect to the principle upon which the war was undertaken and conducted, which was that of security to our American possessions. The conquest of Quebec and Canada, though rather an accidental, than a primary object, is said to be conducive to that security; and if it really is, let us retain both. Your lordship best knows, whether M. Buffly, before he departed from London, did not publicly declare that his master never would renounce his right to Quebec, were he besieged in his palace of Versailles by a hundred thousand men. But, my Lord, I am far from thinking that this declaration was either sincere or unreasonable. It is well known that ministers, especially French ministers, employ the loudest lan-
guage

guage when they are instructed to make the amplest concessions. Had such a minister as Sir William Temple heard M. Bussy make such a declaration, he would immediately have whispered into his master's ear, that he was sure that he had something very like a Carte Blanche in his pocket. I must therefore think the declaration was made to enhance the value of his concessions, and from some symptoms, he imagined he discovered in his majesty's council, of fondness for peace on any terms.

‘ But, my Lord, as I have already hinted, supposing the declaration to be sincere, I cannot think, that even if his Most Christian Majesty sticks by it, it can be of the least obstruction to our concluding a solid, honourable, and advantageous peace. Our possession of Jamaica is of, at least, as much consequence to us as our possession of Quebec; and yet the Spaniards, notwithstanding the many treaties we have had with them, and the friendship that has for these twelve years subsisted between us and them, have never renounced their right to Jamaica. We keep it notwithstanding, and I hope we always shall keep it. In short, my Lord, were a peace made to-morrow under the amplest renunciation on the part of France, of all we have conquered, I should think possession the best, if not our only security. He must be a novice in history, indeed, who is ignorant that the capital maxim of the French monarchy is, that all renunciations are, of themselves, void and of no effect, if they tend to the prejudice of the crown; and, my Lord, on the principles of monarchy linked with those of hereditary succession, I am not sure but they are in the right. At least, were I a British minister or counsellor, I should be extremely tender of advising his majesty to renounce even for himself the disputable right he has.

“ But the French will not make peace, unless we give back Quebec.” ‘ Then let them make war, and try to recover it. As they can have no hopes of that, it is absurd to imagine, that with the viper, they will lick the file, and imagine their blood to be ours. Upon the whole, therefore, if it is in our breast to keep possession of Canada, against all the power of France, as it undoubtedly is: and if that possession is necessary for the security of our American colonies, we never can imagine, that the negotiations for peace will be obstructed on that account. I should not even be either surprized or sorry to see the treaty between us and France published by authority, without either Canada or Quebec being once mentioned in it. No man of the least knowledge or experience in life can doubt, that the most express stipulations on the part of France on that head, will last no longer than her inability to break them.

‘ I shall now turn my view to the other important conquest we have made upon the French in America; I mean that of

daloupe. This, though a fortunate acquisition, must be acknowledged to be extraneous to the original necessary principle upon which the war began; and therefore I must be of opinion that our returning it cannot affect that security for which we fought at first. But are we to return it after the expence we have been at in conquering it? I should be as loth, my Lord, as any man in England, to agree to our giving back the smallest portion of what we have acquired from France, did I not think such a cession infinitely preferable to the continuance of this devouring expensive war. But, in fact, is our retaining Guadaloupe of that vast consequence to this nation as has been represented? Have not those representations been exaggerated beyond the bounds of truth, probability, and give me leave to say, of possibility, by a set of men in this island, who find their interest in discouraging the planters of our own islands, and in endeavouring to render their commodity a drug? I shall readily admit, that the greater the quantity of sugar is that comes to Great-Britain, it is so much the better for us. But can that sugar be raised no where but in Guadaloupe? If the public is not grossly misinformed by those who have the best opportunities of knowing, the neutral islands, which France is willing to relinquish to us, and which, at a very little expence, we can render tenable against all her power, may with proper cultivation be made capable of producing more sugar than either Guadaloupe or Martinico, or indeed both together. When I mention this, I am far from undervaluing the acquisition of Guadaloupe. I know it to be of great importance, but important as it is, I think the restoration of peace to this country is more so; especially if our resigning Guadaloupe can be compensated, as it certainly may be, by our peaceable possession of the neutral islands. Add to this, that Guadaloupe is by no means necessary, as Quebec is, to the preservation of our American possessions. Rationally speaking, therefore, upon the whole, that peace must be solid, honourable, and advantageous, that not only answers the end for which we took up arms, but gives such an additional security, as renders it almost morally impossible for the French ever to become again either our rivals or our enemies in North America.

Next he launches out upon our treaties with his Prussian majesty, and the unnatural alliance between France and the empress-queen, in which he advances little more than has already been urged by the author of the *Considerations on the German War*, in a different point of view.

The second proposition is demonstrated only by an assertion more controvertible than the very point which remained to be proved; namely, that a solid, honourable, and advantageous peace

peace would give Great-Britain an opportunity, with honour and credit for the future, to decline all continental connections. If we can guess at his opinion, amidst a profusion of digressions and rhetorical flourishes, he means, that if we now make a peace, exclusive of any regard to the electorate of Hanover, France will then be awakened out of her favourite dream of obtaining what concessions she pleases from Great-Britain, if demanded by the way of Germany. We are of a contrary opinion: Great-Britain may now, while the mission of fortune, obtain terms without any concessions in favour of the electorate, that will be impracticable on a future occasion, when the arms of France may happen to be more successful in that quarter, and less unfortunate in every other. She will not suppose, after the arts of peace have restored her losses, and repaired the depredations of a ruinous war, that she is to be always foiled by a nation weakened by faction, until a patriot administration (a phenomenon to be expected with the revolution of a corner) had strengthened her nerves by establishing unanimity; and consequently she will not be discouraged from future attempts to involve this island in continental disputes.

With respect to the third proposition, we join issue with the author, provided the present M. may think proper to act on the principles, and with the same spirit as his predecessor in that affair; but we must observe, that our political writer, instead of demonstrating, or illustrating his assertion, has contented himself with vague assertions about the landed interest, the two empires, France, and the king of Prussia.

As to the fourth proposition, which the author conveys by way of sneer, we make no doubt but Mr. P. will heartily co-operate with every measure of the administration, which he believes to be planned with wisdom, entrusted to persons of integrity, and intended to promote the glory and interest of his country.

To conclude: we would recommend it to our author to be less diffusive in his future publications, and more modest in assertions which he cannot demonstrate. We acknowledge that he writes speciously, and may stand a chance for the approbation of wirlings, who deem every thing unanswerable, which their shallow capacities are unable to refute; but if he intends to acquire popularity by his performance, he hath certainly missed his aim. The late minister's friends were attached to his merit, not to his preferment. Let it not, however, be thought that we have entered the lists in his defence, the observations we make, are such as must occur to every ingenuous mind, on the perusal of a pamphlet obviously written to blast his reputation.

tation. Time alone, and a further knowledge of facts, must determine whether we ought to observe an exact neutrality.

ART. X. *The Kept Mistress.* 8vo. Pr. 2s. Morgan.

AS we proceeded in the perusal of this curious performance, we really attributed it to some faded Magdalen, who had survived her attractions, and lately begun to read romance; who had learned by rote some phrases which she did not understand; who knew the scenes of iniquity, but wanted capacity to arrange them in any consistent plan, and to describe them so as to engage any sensible reader's attention. But towards the conclusion of the work, the author seems to have discovered himself in a quotation from a piece that once appeared as an Apology for the Conduct of K—— F——r; as we cannot conceive that any other but the author himself would have made so free with that performance. Indeed, this discovery leaves us still at a loss, being that sort of demonstration termed *Obscurum per obscurius*; we therefore shall not undertake the investigation.

The Kept Mistress is sincerely a very insipid collection of adventures, incident to women of the town, and very likely, a recapitulation of what has actually happened to some of the reigning strumpets of London; but among these adventures we find nothing that favours of novelty and spirit; nothing that interests the heart, or amuses the imagination. What pity it is, that excellent paper, and accurate printing, should have been bestowed upon such an unentertaining medley! In one place we are told, that young Worthy was a youth: in another, a father talks of his son's *enlinking* with a girl; and, in a third, he desired the young gentleman to *desist his visits*:---her hours were melted away in a *rotund* of pleasure and indulgencies. Seeing a *j'en sai quoi* hanging about her; ---this *j'en sai quoi*, which, if literally translated, signifies, *I know what of it*, seems to have been a ragged petticoat, as she was reduced to beggary; but how a ragged petticoat *hanging about her*, should *place her above the vulgar*, we cannot conceive. A ragged petticoat is, indeed, sometimes *placed above the vulgar* on execution-day; and, as an emblem of distress, may be said to be the cause of that exaltation: perhaps the *j'en sai quoi* was a halter, which might first hang about her, and then hang *her above the vulgar*; and finally do the same office to the author for the murder of common sense. Were things brought to this period, '*the relation of these incidents would not occur to his mind the memoirs of a few others*,' who deserve as much as Lascivia, to be hanged for their

their impertinence: for 'what *is* their allurements none can find out; '---yet, 'the *variance* of fancy is as different as the variety of objects.' Let 'his lordship quit her in such a manner as to live genteely and independent.' Even though she should go to the devil; 'others may continue *radicated* in their new situation, and lady Simple be intended for an *herbalist*. Perhaps *she might have made a figure in her profession, had she continued with her tutors*; but Miss grew weary of *handling vegetables, jumped into her chariot, and set her brain so much upon the gid, that she is now driving je hu to a prison*. Without the help of spectacles, we can see the malignant drift of this whole paragraph, which is no other than a scandalous allegory, alluding to H--ll, the great herbalist, whom this author typifies under the character of a *simpling* old woman; that is, the *tutors*. As for *jumping into a chariot, setting her brain upon the gid, and driving je hu to a prison*; it is too bare-faced to need any explanation. Much might be said upon *Je Hu*; but the J. H. must, at the first glance, disclose his meaning to every reader of common sense:---thank heaven, there is no need of adopting the doctrine of inuendo to constitute this a libel; and then, perhaps, some other person than *Je hu* may be drove to prison. Indeed, Mr. Author, such a circumstance would *make your pendant fires burn blue*; and peradventure, bring you to the condition of a *manes*, though you would not be intitled, like that *manes* whom you describe, to a *wreath of laurels*.

ART. XI. *An Earnest Address to the People of Great Britain and Ireland: Occasioned by the Dismission of William Pitt, Esq; from the Office of Secretary of State.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Owen.

THE design of this author (if he had any other design than that of selling his pamphlet) is to prove that the nation was on the brink of perdition, when Mr. Pitt assumed the reins of government: that all the subsequent success of the war was intirely owing to the conduct and ability of that gentleman; that Mr. de Buffy was sent over to sow the seeds of division in the British council; and that the secretary of state was *dismissed* from his employment. We should be very sorry to think, that Mr. P--tt stood in need of such an advocate, whose candour and capacity will never do great honour to any cause which he may espouse. He sets out with the *liberal* wish, that the French nation may be consigned to destruction: then he proceeds to give a very frigid and defective recapitulation of the events of the war. In the course of which, every favourable incident is ascribed to the virtue and ability of Mr. P--tt. According to our
pam.

pamphleteer, it was Mr. P. who took the French ships in the Mediterranean, which fell in with the cruisers of Osborne's Squadron. It was he who reduced Senegal. It was he who fought the French fleet in the East Indies, and defended Madras. He plundered Cherbourg, and the isle of Aix; reduced Cape Breton; took Fort Frontenac; compelled the enemy to abandon Fort du Quesne; made a conquest of Guadalupe; took possession of Ticonderago, and Crown Point; defeated the French forces at Niagara; worsted the squadron of *de la Clue* off Cape Lagos; destroyed the French fleet in Quiberon-Bay; ruined the squadron of Thurot; obtained a victory at Quebec; became master of that city; finished the conquest of Canada; and completed the reduction of Belleisle. He might have added, that Mr. P--- executed that glorious plan of the alliance with his P----n m-----y, and the diversion in Germany, where the British arms have acquired such glory and advantage. Without seeking to detract from the transcendent merit of that great minister, we must observe that Osborne, who took the French ships in the Mediterranean; Boscawen, who defeated them at Lagos; and Hawke, who ruined them in Quiberon, were all officers employed before Mr. P--tt came into the m-----y: that the reduction of Senegal was projected by a Quaker; that Guadalupe was invaded, and partly subdued, without the concurrence or knowledge of Mr. P--t-: that all the conquests in America were planned by lord L-----n, and executed by inferior officers, who had never met with opportunities of signalizing their capacity before that service was undertaken; consequently their genius must, in a great measure, have been unknown; that the attempt on Quebec was carried on in in diametrical opposition to all the rules of war that ever were established; and our success chiefly owing to good fortune: that our expeditions to the coast of France were ridiculously expensive, without answering any good purpose; and the conquest of Belleisle not worth the tenth part of the blood and treasure it has cost this nation. We shall conclude with affirming, that Mr. P--tt was not dismissed, but voluntarily resigned his office; and this we affirm, on the authority of his own letter, which has been printed in all the news-papers.

ART. XII. ENGRAVING.

THERE is a fine print just published of a Land-Storm, from a painting of Mr. Wilson's, engraved by Mr. Woollett. In this piece is introduced Apollo and Diana, destroying the sons and daughters of Niobe for this unhappy woman's presumption, in preferring herself to Latona, the mother of these divinities;

divinities; the trees are broken down; the rain descends in torrents from the mountains, upon one of which, under some bushes, we may perceive a flock of sheep taking shelter from the storm: the effects of the lightning appear by the city on fire; and the violent agitation of the water between the mountains is very finely represented. Here is opportunity enough, from the nature of the subject, for an engraver to display his talents; and we doubt not but this production will please the curious, as there is a great deal of genius shewn in the execution: the mountains seem to project out of the print, and the water is perfectly in motion; the distances are delicately softened away, and the sky nicely managed. We therefore wish this truly ingenious artist the encouragement his merit deserves, as we look upon this performance of his to be the best of the kind this nation has produced.

Mr. Frye has also published two most beautiful ladies in Mezzotinto, and proposes four more. For us to say any thing in their favour would be, at best, but the faint eccho of the applause they have received from every man of taste.

Monthly CATALOGUE.

Art. 13. *The Patriot Unmasked; or, A Word to his Defenders.* By John Trott, *Cheefemonger and Statesman.* 8vo. Pr. 1 s. Pridden.

IN the midst of all the sarcasms which this author has so facetiously thrown out against a late celebrated minister, we find certain positions, which we wish he would further explain. He tells us Capt. Jenkins, who had his ears cropt by the Spaniards before the beginning of the last war, is still living in Dublin, and has both his ears on his head, as well as any of Mr. P--tt's defenders. Now we should be glad to know in what manner the artists of Dublin have restored those ears, which were separated so long from the head to which they once appertained; for that they were actually separated appeared to the full conviction of the whole house of commons. With respect to the conquests of the present war, he says, they will instantly put the world in mind, how much greater conquests were every campaign atchieved by the great duke of Marlborough. Now we should be obliged to the worthy cheefemonger, if he would prove that all the conquests of the duke of Marlborough put together, were equal in importance to those of Canada and Guadalupe. He insinuates that a Spanish war would utterly ruin us:--on the contrary, we always imagined that a Spanish war

war might be maintained without incurring one farthing of additional expence ; and that, instead of impoverishing, it would enrich the nation. On the whole, our cheesemonger writes with some humour, and a great deal of shrewdness ; but if he has not more candour behind his counter than he seems to have behind his writing-desk, we will bait our traps at another shop, and leave him to starve amidst his political lucubrations.

Art. 14. *The Right Honourable Annuitant Vindicated. With a Word or Two in Favour of the other Great Man, in Case of his Resignation. In a Letter to a Friend in the Country.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Morgan.

This piece is written in the same spirit as the former. The author's intention is to ridicule and vilify a great man who has lately resigned his office. How far he has succeeded we have not room to particularize : we shall only take notice that he is very specious and very satirical ; and that we heartily wish there had been no cause for that resignation, which hath furnished a pretext for so many writers to discharge their virulence on such a respectable character.

Art. 15. *An Answer to a Letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of B***, in which the false Reasoning, and absurd Conclusions, in that Pamphlet, are fully detected and refuted: Addressed to the Right Hon. Earl Temple.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Wilkie.

Fungar vice cotis would have been a pertinent motto for the performance to which this is an answer, as every paragraph in the letter serves no other purpose than to sharpen the point of our author's wit. Without pursuing the letter-writer through the maze of disjointed argument, and perpetual digression, he catches hold of some bold assertions, tending to reflect on the conduct of a late popular minister, and to ascribe all the success which attended his administration, to accident, Providence, or the sage plans handed down to him from his predecessor in the office ; and proves them contradictory, absurd, and ridiculous. We shall only select one passage, as an instance of the smartness of our answerer at repartee. The letter-writer, after having expatiated on the greatness of our national debt, and the dangerous consequences of overstraining our public credit, subjoins, " I am, however, somewhat concerned to reflect, it is possible some well-meaning people may think I ought not to tell those matters in Gath, or to publish them in Ascalon. Alas ! my lord, they are truths that are already but too well known to the Philistines, and even to the daughters of the Philistines ; they are the truths that make them rejoice." " Why, truly, (says our arch author), the Philistines, if they compare their own situation

tuation with ours, have no great cause to rejoice. The Philistines, after suffering a national bankruptcy, have already been obliged to contribute their plate to supply the exigencies of the state, and the daughters of the Philistines will probably be soon obliged to contribute their jewels, and ear-rings, to answer the same salutary purpose; but, thank heaven! neither the Israelites, nor the daughters of the Israelites, have yet been driven to such extremities.'

Art. 16. *Considerations on the Expediency of a Spanish War: containing Reflections on the late Demands of Spain; and on the Negotiations of Mons. Buffy.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Griffiths.

The author of this pamphlet hath not shewn that a Spanish war is expedient; but he has endeavoured to prove, that a rupture with Great Britain would be highly pernicious to Spain, and consequently infers, that our ministry will not be intimidated into concessions to France, by the impotent menaces of his Catholic majesty.

Art. 17. *A Letter to his Grace the Duke of N——, on the present Crisis in the Affairs of Great-Britain. Containing Reflections on a late Great Resignation.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Griffiths.

The sapless trunk on which this fungus was generated, hath endeavoured to merit a hearing, by attaching himself to the popular side of the present political debates, without the smallest acquaintance with the point in dispute. Except for a dull attempt to ironical satire on the noble personage to whom the letter is addressed, we should set the writer down as *neutral*, from his incapacity of being *partial*.

Art. 18. *A Treatise on the Prerogatives of a Queen Consort of England.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Owen.

These seem to be the labours of some very learned antiquary, who hath industriously smothered every ray of genius under loads of venerable rust, and sought for good sense among musty old rolls and papers, shoved into a corner by the consent of mankind. Those, however, who delight in such futile disquisitions, may find the gratification of a vitiated appetite in the perusal of this laboured pamphlet.

Art. 19. *The History of our Customs, Aids, Subsidies, National Debts, and Taxes, from William the Conqueror, to the present year 1761.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.

We recommended the former parts of this work as useful to the curious, with respect to the state of our national debt and taxes; but we are sorry to observe, that the author has extended

tended it to an insufferable length. It is but justice, however, to add, that he hath here enlivened the heavy detail by some very judicious reflections, on the preposterous manner in which the government hath thought proper to raise the annual supplies.

The history of our taxes is now only deduced to the thirteenth year of George I. and to bring it down in the same order to the present times will require a folio volume.

Art. 20. *Long Life to their most excellent Britannic Majesties, King George III. and Queen Charlotte: or, Down with the Devil, Pope, French King, and Pretender. An heroic Poem. By a Freeholder of Kent.* 8vo. Pr. 6d. Corbett.

We cannot but applaud the loyal zeal of this extraordinary author, who is, in all respects, a warranted original, both in matter and stile: nevertheless, we advise and exhort him to hold fast by his freehold in Kent; for his genius will never enable him to purchase even a copyhold in Parnassus.

Art. 21. *The Authentic Proceedings of the French King and his Parliament against the Jesuits of France. Setting in the most clear and impartial View the fundamental and political Motives which urged his most Christian Majesty and his Parliament thereto, on the 6th and 8th Days of August last; ordering their Publications to be burned, and other severe Restrictions on their Constitution.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

The most curious part of this pamphlet is the preface, in which we find a distinct account of the trade carried on by the Jesuits, to and from Martinico; and the circumstance of their stopping payment, in order to defraud their just creditors. What follows is a collection of the French king's declarations; and the French parliament's decrees touching some books of the Jesuits, condemned to the flames, as containing doctrines subversive of all government and morality.

Art. 22. *The Inoculation of Good Sense. Or, an Estimate of the present Manners of the French Nation.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Seyffert.

This appraiser seems to have done justice to the gewgaws of a nation famed for trifling; and if our own worth was weighed in the same scale, the nineteenth part of a grain would turn the balance on either side. The reader will find some entertainment in this spirited production.

Art. 23. *The Muses Address to D. Garrick, Esq; with Harlequin's Remonstrance, in Answer to the said Address.* 8vo. Pr. 6d. Nicholls.

This address is as flat and fulsome as any that has been presented at the theatre, since the accession of his present majesty.

Art. 24. *A Funeral Discourse, occasioned by the much-lamented Death of Mr. Yorick, Prebendary of Y——k, and Author of the much admired Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy, preached before a very mixed Society of Femmies, Jessamies, Methodists, and Cbristians, at a nocturnal Meeting in Petticoat-Lane, and now published at the unanimous Request of the Hearers, by Christopher Flagellan, A. M. and enriched with the Notes of various Commentators.* 8vo. Pr. 1s.

This discourse is ushered in with two advertisements, and a dedication to the right honourable the lord F-----g, and to the very facetious Mr. Foote. The piece is intended to be a very witty and humorous satire on the author of *Tristram Shandy*; nor has the writer altogether miscarried. Here is some wit, and a competent share of good sense, which, perhaps, may give Yorick some compunction. But if it does, we suppose he will not repent in sackcloth and ashes; but in sack, and clean linnen, and while he enjoys the substantial fruits of his talent, laugh in his own sleeve, at the critics who endeavour to discompose *his lining*.

Art. 25, *A Sermon preached at the Coronation of King George III. and Queen Charlotte, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, September 22, 1761. By Robert, Lord Bishop of Sarum.* 4to. Pr. 6d. Bathurst.

This sermon is worthy of the occasion, worthy of the excellent prelate who delivered, and the august assembly who were present at it: not stuffed with fulsome panegyric and gross flattery on a prince who despises such incense; but sensible, serious, and spirited, as the following short quotation from it will sufficiently convince our readers.

‘A wise Prince will not only cultivate those principles, which strengthen the bands, by which every society is knit together; but he will also unalterably adhere to those means, and pursue those ends, which secure the foundations, and promote the benefits of the constitution, at the head of which he is placed.—If his happy lot fall in a country where the Constitution in Church and State is founded upon the principles of purity and freedom; and justly poised between the extremes of power and liberty: he will find himself cloathed with every degree of authority, that a heart well-intentioned can desire; and at the head of a Constitution, the best formed to convey peace and happiness to mankind: and it will be easy to him, to make the law the rule of his actions; as he measures his own interest by that of his people, and his own duty by the public good.——A free Constitution hath numberless depending motions, which are necessary to check each other; and which may be sometimes stopped or disordered by the passions of men; it requires there-

fore early, resolute and uniform vigilance in the administration of government : but these very checks mark out more distinctly the mutual interest of Prince and people, and necessitate both to pursue it, if they are true to themselves. In such a Constitution, the power of the prince is not absolute, but sufficient for every right purpose, and which a great and good mind will delight in executing. The obedience of the people is the obedience of men, not slaves ; unforced and unfeigned ; and therefore the more honourable and more acceptable to an upright king : and the temper, the affection, the vigour, which liberty inspires, will carry the dignity and greatness of a sovereign to a higher pitch, than can be attained by any other principle of government.'

As this sermon is already in the hands of almost every one, that can read, it is unnecessary to say any thing more concerning it : the king who confers honours and dignities on such men as Dr. Drummond, reflects honour on his own judgment.

Art. 26. *The Critical Reviewers criticised ; and lashed with their own Rods, for their Partial Criticism upon the Examples of the Ancient Sages, Vol. I.* By Amicus Amico. 8vo. Pr. 6d. Doddsley.

Compassion prevents our making fresh application of the rod to the back of petulant dulness, which presumes to throw up behind, because we have administered wholesome correction. The author's situation will suggest to him the motives why we have not resented his feeble retort. Distress is not the object of ridicule. We must, however, observe, that the title of esquire, with which he dignified his name, seduced us into an opinion, that the compiler of *Examples from the Antient Sages*, was some personage whose circumstances could better support the disappointment of literary applause.

Art. 27. *The Triumvirate, a Poetical Portrait. Taken from the Life, and finished after the manner of Swift.* By Veritas, an unknown hand. 4to. Pr. 1s. Kearsly.

We have heard something of this title's being taken by the enemy, like a loaded culverin, and turned upon the owner ; but we are not enough acquainted with the anecdotes of wit, to explain the transaction ; nor is it of much consequence to the public. The Triumvirate as it now stands is a panegyric conveyed in ironical doggerel rhimes, on the three invincible heroes, C---h---ll, C---l---n, and L---d. Mr. G-----k is lugged into the confederacy, for what reason we know not, as we do not remember that he has publicly acceded to their alliance. Neither can we inform the reader, which of the three composed, or whether all three clubbed their wit and poetry towards the production of this Triumvirate. We will not give their

their printer the trouble to attest a negative in the daily papers again.—But the reader must not imagine that the whole piece is employed in praising C——ll, C——n, and L——d. No; great part of it is allotted to abuse; and in this part the Critical Review, and some of its supposed authors, have the honour to be stigmatized.—Long life, and redundancy of car-
 rion, to this leash of staunch hounds, the ravenous C-----ll, the yelping C-----n, and the howling L-----d. By way of sop, we shall throw a short fable to this triple-headed Cerberus, that guards the cave of obloquy; and, as they have twice punned on the word *Critical*, for the edification of Grubstreet, they may squeeze out a third *a posteriori*. ‘Three raw, unbred puppies, out of meer wantonness of ill-nature, set up their discordant throats, and bayed the moon; a mastiff chancing to pass that way, “Children, (said he) you may bark till you are hoarse, and disturb the whole neighbourhood, but the moon will continue to shine, even after you are all three hanged for lurching.”

Art. 28. *The Pick-Lock, or, Voltaire's Hue and Cry after a certain celebrated Wit Stealer, and Dramatic Smuggler.* By Jasper Canonicus Whipcord. Folio. Pr. 1s. Williams.

The quarrels of wits have been a reproach to literature in the most polished ages; but we will venture to say, no literary dispute, since the days of absolute barbarism, ever produced such tropes and figures of vulgar abuse, as are here discharged in a continued volley against a gentleman of a fair character, with a contempt of decency, and disregard of truth, equally shameful and atrocious. Those who expect to find poetry in this piece will meet with doggrel; *the right butter-woman's rank to market*; and instead of wit, such a torrent of railing, as would oblige the nymphs of Billingsgate to hide, ashamed, their vanquished heads. Mr. M-----y (according to this elegant author) was a butter-seller's boy at Cork; an attorney's clerk; a perjured leap-stick; a weekly bravo; a felon; a fifth-rate player; a mongrel; a thief of fable; a picklock of poetic geer; a forger of lies, cudgelled and kicked; a beggar; a hypocrite; a poxed whore-master; a patched cully; a blood-hound; and a rascal.----- Such is the delicate repartee of modern wits!---- We dare say the reader will not learn, without a glow of generous indignation, that this infamous libel is the production of a wretch lost to all sense of gratitude and shame; who exists a monument of the bounty of that very gentleman whom he has so villainously traduced.—The existence of such a caitiff, is a severe satire on human nature.

Art. 29. *An Elegy on a Pile of Ruins.* By J. Cunningham. 4to. Pr. 6d. Payne.

We are much pleased with this description: it is truly poetical;

poetical ; and wish we could spare room for a quotation, which would certainly be very agreeable to the reader.

Art. 30. *Form of Prayer, &c. for Baptism, &c.* Pr. 6d. Whiston.
Devotion and good-sense are united in this little performance.

Art. 31. *An Epistle to C. Churchill, Author of the Rosciad, &c.*
By D. Hayes, Esq. 4to Pr. 1s. Bristow.

This gentleman has mounted the stage for his diversion against the venerable champion of St. John's and his Jack-call ; and though he seems to handle his weapon carelessly, they have sustained some hard knocks, from which shoulders of common feeling would smart severely.

Art. 32. *A Dialogue between a great Commoner and his Lady.* Fol.
Pr. 6d. Cabe.

A very thin mess of water-gruel.

Art. 33. *A certain Great Man vindicated.* Pr. 6d. Williams.
A lame advocate indeed. *Non tali auxilio ; non defensoribus istis:*

Art. 34. *An Essay on Gaming,* 4to. Pr. 1s. Field.

We are afraid *that* Python will never be destroyed by *this* Apollo : yet even here we meet with some very good verses, and wonder by what accident the author stumbled upon them.

Art. 35. *Remarks on an Address to the People called Quakers, &c.*
By S. Fothergill. 8vo. 6d. Clark.

We should not chuse to encounter this sly quaker in disputable points of religion.

Art. 36. *The Compulsive Clause in the present Act of Insolvency fully considered.* 8vo. 1s. Davis.

This writer had probably some ideas when he placed himself at his desk ; but they are entirely dissipated before the fervour of his public spirit, and we have not leisure to converge them.

Art. 37. *An Ode upon the Fleet and Royal Yatch, going to conduct the Princess of Mecklenburgh, to be Queen of Great Britain.* 4to.
Pr. 1s. Dodsley.

The elegance of Baskerville's types was never worse employed, than in printing an ode which should be honoured with those fair characters that impart bloody murders and street ballads to the public.

Art. 38. *Reynard's Prosecution of Bruin, assisted by the Wolf, Ox, Ass, Ram, Beaver, &c. A Fable.* 4to. Pr. 1s. Ranger.

A wretched story, related in still more wretched verses.